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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 28, 1904.

The Week.

After the Senate debate of Friday, and again and particularly of Monday, it would need a new algebraical sign to designate what remains of the Lodge-Roosevelt "infinitesimal recess." Certain appointments unconfirmed at the special session were, it will be recalled, renewed by the President in a supposititious recess between sessions. As a matter of fact, there was no recess, and the offices were constructively vacant. Senator Tillman brought up the case, chiefly with the intention of showing that Collector Crum of Charleston is holding office without warrant of law. It was a curious result of the discussion that Senators Spooner, Hale, and Platt of Connecticut all approved the resolution, and all riddled the notion that appointments may be made between twelve and twelve o'clock of the same day. Senator Hale went so far as to say that "no Senator on this side has, whatever may be his partisan feeling, indicated any expression of a recognition of this new proposition that there was a constructive recess when the two sessions merged." It should be said that the President has not expressly committed himself to the doctrine that a fragment of time too brief for physical measurement may be conjured out of the dark backward and abyss. But it is certain that Secretary Shaw has practically endorsed that whimsy; trusting, doubtless, to Senator Lodge's famous elucidation of the theory of infinitesimals. Too fine spun for Senators, it cannot be supposed that the Comptroller of the Treasury, who must deal with time as mortals know it, will pay recess salaries to officials appointed at no ascertainable moment. The case will remain one of the curious aberrations of an Administration over-anxious to "do things."

There were really some very lively ghosts flitting about in the Roosevelt-Lodge "recess." One of them was Gen. Wood. He held a commission as Major-General. But, under the Constitution, and unless there was an interval between twelve and twelve o'clock on December 7, no new commission could be legally issued to him; and he is only a Brigadier-General nominated to be Major-General. When appointments are made in a recess of the Senate, commissions are issued at once, and the incumbent holds office until confirmed or rejected. If the session expires without action on the nomination, it lapses, and the commission with it, and a new appointment has to be made. But on De-

cember 7 there was no recess, except in the President's mind, during which a new nomination of Gen. Wood and the others might be sent in. The Senate was in session continuously. Consequently, the nominations were not recess appointments; hence they did not lawfully carry commissions with them; hence Gen. Wood has no right at present to either the rank or the pay of a Major-General. Other perquisites are balanced on the Lodge-Roosevelt pin-point of a constructive recess. There is the question of mileage for Congressmen. Representative Underwood ruthlessly proposes to strike out an item of \$145,000 from the Deficiency Bill, on the ground that Congressmen could not travel to and from Maine and Texas and Oregon in the President's interval of time between 11 hours, 60 minutes, and 12 hours. But metaphysics is a blessed word. For all Mr. Underwood knows, may there not have been a metaphysical flight of Congressmen to their homes and back, in just no time at all? If Puck could put a girdle about the earth in forty minutes, a really able-bodied Congressman might have flown to Seattle and back while Mr. Roosevelt was nominating Gen. Wood. The President's imperceptible instant of time ought to be good enough for all Congressmen whose philosophy is not overborne by a wholly unnecessary desire to be economical and honest.

Senator Spooner made on Tuesday week the astounding suggestion that the President may not have known of the orders of the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, tantamount to a declaration of war upon Colombia, two days before the revolution at Panama. If this is not merely the shift of a lawyer driven into a corner in debate, it is one of the most alarming revelations yet made about Mr. Roosevelt's Administration. Is its war spirit so rampant that every Assistant Secretary thinks himself entitled to begin hostilities without waiting to get the consent of the President? The mere hint by Senator Spooner that such may be the case is enough to redouble the demand for a "safe" President. According to the Senator, any underling might any day declare war over Mr. Roosevelt's head. How do we know that some clerk in the Navy Department is not, at this moment, sending a squadron to bombard Port Arthur? Mr. Spooner's remark is either a mere quibble, unworthy of him, or else a confession of chaos in the Government.

The Senate is urged by the versatile Bunau-Varilla to pass the Panama treaty without amendment, on the ground that

it means anything or nothing, or whatever the United States wishes to make it mean. Panama is so much our good friend that she will trust us to read the treaty as we will. It is surprising that no exponent of Senatorial courtesy has risen and asked why, if the treaty means now one thing, now another, the time of an august body has been wasted in its consideration. Surely the Senators who have carefully weighed it clause by clause and tried to make of it an accurate state paper, are left in a very ridiculous position by M. Bunau-Varilla's glib suggestion. Why would it not have been better to ratify mutually the Golden Rule or Poor Richard's Almanack, leaving their application to Isthmian complications within the discretion of President Roosevelt and his successors? To discredit the entire negotiation, it needed only M. Bunau-Varilla's assurance that his foster-fatherland offers us a putty treaty—a palpable convenience for stuffing into any or all chinks, a great improvement upon treaties which cover only a stingily defined patch. In other words, M. Bunau-Varilla reminds us concerning his own treaty that all papers are worthless, or superfluous, between friends. These are the airs of a man who loftily waves aside, or rather jauntily refuses to give, a note of hand for a loan.

But M. Bunau-Varilla has not even the consistency of his impertinence. With one breath he says that the treaty is so flexible that amendments are unnecessary; with the next he declares that if we begin to amend it, the treaty will suddenly become a serious contract, may be subject to counter-amendments by Panama, and, perhaps, imperilled by the delay. Which Philippe are we to regard as "Philip sober?"—the smiling envoy who says, "My Panamans are so amiable that they don't care what Uncle Sam does with the treaty," or the grave diplomat who protests, "My Panamans are so desirous of having that treaty explicit that they will be amending it forever if Uncle Sam is foolish enough to give them the chance"? Clearly, both Philips cannot be right. The Senate will do well to ignore them both, to take its own steady course, and meanwhile leave the Executive Department to tread as it may the twists and turns of the Panama vaudeville. The Senate really has no obligation to notice the fantastic Minister of Panama, nor yet to relieve the American bargainers with him from their embarrassing position before the footlights.

Democratic Senators who say they can make political capital out of the President's lawless course in Panama while at the same time voting to ratify the treaty, are wildly deluded. All of them who

support the treaty will rightly be held to be thereby condoning the abhorrent means by which it was obtained. And as their party in the Senate has the power to defeat the President, it will be unable to say a word against his Panama illegality if the treaty is ratified with the aid of Democratic votes. The retort will be too ready: "If it was so knavish a measure, why didn't you kill it?" The Democratic minority have a great opportunity to serve the country as well as their party by insisting that the Administration find an honorable way out of its wretched Panama mess. If they do otherwise, they will enter the campaign in the highly moral attitude of receivers of stolen goods denouncing the thief.

The President's law for his Panama policy was seriously impugned at the meeting of the State Bar Association last week. But this will not bother Mr. Roosevelt. He will shed this attack as easily as that of the Yale professors. Are they not Democrats—or else that most fearful of all wildfowl, "Democrats in disguise"? It is not a question of the law, but of the man who opens the book and reads it out. Any lawyer or professor of international law who differs with the President is, *ipso facto*, no good man and true, presumptively a Bryanite, and more than probably a weakling. This once established, it is, of course, unnecessary to discuss his arguments. On the other hand, any Senator or editor who sustains the President's course becomes thereby exalted to the rank of a great authority. Of such an advocate the President says, in the language of "mon père Distinguo" in the 'Provincial Letters': "It does not matter where he got his law; it is enough to know that the opinions of great men like that are always convincing of themselves."

Gen. Reyes's correspondence on behalf of Colombia was published on January 19. His explanation of the rejection of the Hay-Herran treaty was manly and straightforward. He reminded Mr. Hay that when the treaty was presented to the State of Colombia, the United States Minister at Bogotá insisted, in offensive terms, that the treaty should be ratified without change. Where the Senate expected to debate a treaty, they were served with an ultimatum. To reject it was an obvious counsel of self-respect. Imagine what our Senate would have done if, when the Hay-Pauncefote treaty was before it, it had learned that Lord Lansdowne was repeatedly telegraphing to the British Ambassador at Washington that the treaty must be ratified without change or delay. That is what Mr. Hay did to our Minister to Colombia, and Commissioner Reyes states only the truth when he says that the demand was derogatory to the national

dignity. But we have had for some time Mr. Hay's reply to this complaint of discourteous treatment. It is, stripped of verbiage: Colombia is a minor Power, and has no right to take its dignity and self-respect too seriously. A "Dago" Senate has no use for generous sentiments befitting great Powers only. The interests of civilization required a canal, and, since Colombia is a picayune State, she should have obligingly consented to be blustered into doing the will of her betters. President Roosevelt evidently held the same opinion of the republic of Colombia when he borrowed from the French the awful word "anti-social" to characterize the obstructors of the canal project.

It is stated that Capt. Patrick Garrick, collector of customs at El Paso, has bought 3,000,000 acres of land in Mexico for cattle purposes. This is a good or bad piece of news, according as one happens to be a friend or foe of humanity. Senator Spooner said, the other day, that a sufficient reason for seizing the Isthmus was that American capital was invested there. But that is nothing to the hundreds of millions we have invested in Mexico in railroads, mines, ranches, plantations, and other ways. Certainly, there is no Latin-American country where we have so much at stake financially. The fact that President Díaz is getting on in years must, therefore, be a source of great uneasiness to those who do not take "large" views of things. When he is gone, Mexico may lapse into its former political chaos. Then, of course, there would be no reason why Mexican independence should be respected. It may be an open question whether trade should follow the flag; but there is no doubt at all that the flag should follow trade. The interests of humanity may not require us to take Mexico by eminent domain just at present; but when, after Díaz, we actually want that portion of the earth, the work of starting a revolution will be a mere detail.

While Mr. Williams was baiting the Republicans in the House, the Senate Committee on Navigation was listening to the protests of the cordage manufacturers against the "stand-patters" who propose to restrict the carrying trade of the Philippines to American bottoms. And about the time a good Republican was saying in the House that, while he favored the principle of reciprocity, he was against taking up the question of Canadian reciprocity, the National Board of Trade was unanimously passing a resolution in Washington calling for such a measure. But to make the matter more confusing still, the American Protective Tariff League was engaged on Thursday in denouncing reciprocity *in toto*: there can be no such

thing between competitive nations without murdering the "doctrine of protection to all industry and all labor." If there is any truth in the assertion that a calm is the result of conflicting currents striving for the mastery, it can be accepted as a fact that the Republican party will, so far as tariff legislation is concerned, remain like a painted ship upon a painted ocean. To be sure, we hear of its being about to do great things in that line in 1905. But how can it? The tariff must not be disturbed before an election, and business must not be upset by such action after a Republican success. However, President Roosevelt is great at finding expedients. No doubt, when he gets round to it, he can discover a metaphysical interval of time in which it will be safe to revise the tariff.

There is nothing surprising in the assertion that the American Tin Plate Company's warehouses are crowded with tin plate. The fact that the exports of tin plate for the first eleven months of 1903 declined from 3,430,665 pounds to 455,726 pounds explains that. It is worth noting, too, that the November trade statement shows that in that month we imported from Great Britain over 10,500,000 pounds of the commodity (an increase over 1902 of about 1,374,000 pounds), while our total exports were only 73,510 pounds. Evidently the Welsh tin-plate industry is not on its last legs. Just at present, the Steel Trust is instituting rigid economies. It wants all the business it can get, but it wants it at the lowest expense to itself. The increasing prosperity of the Welsh tin-plate makers in the last few years has perhaps frightened the Trust somewhat and caused it to see the wisdom of a compromise. It will keep its tin plate out of the foreign market if the British manufacturers will buy their raw material of the Trust. The British manufacturers can ask nothing better than this, as the Trust is prepared to "dump" the raw material of the tin-plate industry on foreign countries, and as this country is not a serious competitor abroad in tin plate.

Opponents of President Roosevelt within his own party are growing more vociferous. The Chicago *Inter Ocean*, a strong Republican paper of the Middle West, admits that President Roosevelt is almost certain to lose New York next November, and quite possibly New Jersey and Connecticut; and the *Inter Ocean* therefore withdraws from "the irreconcilable conflict" between "the Roosevelt Republicans and the McKinley-Hanna Republicans"; in short, that newspaper does not urge the renomination of Roosevelt. The *Sun*, the recognized organ of the New York sentiment against Roosevelt, came out

on Thursday morning in an editorial ridiculing the idea that failure to support Roosevelt's pretensions is treason to the party, and contending that Hanna, Root, or Taft may properly be considered in connection with the nomination. The *Sun* apparently believes that, as Gibbon didn't understand the difference between himself and the Roman Empire, so Mr. Roosevelt fails to comprehend that he is not the whole Republican party; and it makes the significant announcement, "with the Senator's own authority," that Senator Hanna has never pledged himself to any one ("and especially not to Mr. Roosevelt") that the Senator "will not be a candidate for the Presidency if at any time he shall see fit." If the *Sun* editorial be directly inspired by Hanna, the Roosevelt adherents are wise in deciding that the moment has come to make an active campaign for delegates.

President Roosevelt seems to have given up his motto of *toujours de l'audace*, as respects his own renomination. He declines to accept Senator Foraker's invitation to make the welkin ring in Ohio fighting for Roosevelt delegates. The President, it is explained, cannot allow himself to be "drawn into a factional controversy" of that kind. Yes; but no such consideration swayed him last year, when he took up Senator Hanna's challenge in a sensational telegram, and openly appealed to the Ohio convention to endorse him. That was only a preliminary skirmish—that was merely Las Guásimas, and now the Rough Rider is facing San Juan Hill; does he falter? The contrast between his action last year and this is perhaps the best indication of the loss of prestige that has since befallen him. Then he was carrying everything before him; now he has to face open enemies and secret foes on every hand. Doubtless, he is well advised not to put his fortunes to the proof in a struggle with Mr. Hanna in Ohio. He would be pretty sure to get more hard knocks than glory. But in many other States the work of chilling Roosevelt enthusiasm and undermining the President's political support is going on actively, and one can understand the angry impatience with which his indignant friends are calling upon him to don his "fighting clothes."

That a Liberal candidate should, on January 20, have increased by nearly 300 the majority at Gateshead of that picturesque and powerful Radical, the late Sir William Allan, is certainly of bad omen for the Chamberlainites. Taken in connection with their conclusive defeat recently at Norwich, it merely emphasizes the lesson of the fifteen bye-elections held since Mr. Chamberlain began his campaign for what he calls tariff reform. They were held to fill

seats to which in 1900 there had been returned 12 Unionists and 3 Liberals. They resulted in the choice of 9 Unionists, 5 Liberals, and 1 Independent Labor member. Thus the Government lost one out of every four of the seats in question. The replacement of one-fourth of all the Unionist M.P.'s by Liberals would at the next election reduce the total number of the former to 307, and bring the Liberal and Labor total up to 281. In that event, neither of the two British parties could carry on his Majesty's Government a moment longer than it suited the Irish Nationalists to let it. If the Liberal and Labor parties can reach some working understanding, it is not unlikely that they may secure an absolute majority of all the 670 members of the House—something which they have not had since the dissolution of the Parliament chosen in 1880. If a comparison between 1885 and the recent bye-elections be made on the basis of treating as Liberal votes all votes cast at either election for all Liberal or Labor candidates, there has been a Liberal gain of 273, or at the rate of 22 to a constituency. In 1885, 6 Liberal candidates were defeated by majorities of less than 22 each. A gain of 6 seats, as compared with the 1885 totals, would give a Liberal membership of 339, or a majority of 8 over all.

If comparison be made between the result of the bye-elections and those of the general election of 1892, the results indicate an even more hopeful prospect for the present Opposition. Of the seats recently filled, ten were contested in 1892. In these constituencies there was a net Liberal gain, counting the vote cast for the regular Liberal candidates only, of 5,611, or an average of 561 to a constituency. In 1892, 115 Unionists in Great Britain were returned by less than 561 majority each. At that election 273 Liberals were successful. If they gain as compared with that election 115 seats, they will muster 388 in the new Parliament, a clear majority of 106 over all. If the vote cast for Labor candidates be included in the Liberal totals, the gain as compared with 1892 in the ten constituencies in which such comparisons are possible is 11,421, at the rate of 1,142 to each constituency. Such a ratio of gain would give the Liberals about 150 seats more than they had in 1892, or a total membership of 420 or upwards, and a majority of at least 170 over all. No attempt at prophecy is intended. No one knows when the general election will be held. Whether public opinion in Great Britain will, months or years hence, endorse Mr. Chamberlain's programme, no one can now tell with certainty. But the result of the bye-elections since that programme was announced yields very persuasive evidence that at present the nation is not with Chamberlain.

Whitaker Wright's conviction and tragic death end a chapter of unusual interest in British finance. The notorious London and Globe Company was the logical conclusion of the inflated notions of corporation possibilities that filled the British mind a few years ago. When the speculative craze is on him, the average Englishman is capable of leaving his American cousin far behind in a career of recklessness. There are always adventurers ready to take advantage of his outbursts of insanity. Wright's project was not so absurd as some that were launched during the South Sea bubble, but he unquestionably possessed the spirit of that period. He launched his £2,000,000 London and Globe corporation, and made it go by filling the directorate with peers and other eminent personages, headed by the late Marquis of Dufferin. Wright himself acquired 67,650 shares; but when the wind-up came he had only 2,500, high premiums having been quoted in the meanwhile. It was the old story of false prospectuses and fraudulent balance sheets. The English Companies act is very strict as regards false statements; they are a penal offence. Wright had conducted himself with effrontery since criminal proceedings were begun against him, as if the magnitude of his fraudulent promoting robbed it of its heinousness.

The introduction of Chinese labor in the Transvaal seems assured, the law to that effect having passed its second reading in the Legislative Council on January 20. This measure has been bitterly antagonized in all parts of the British Empire, especially in Australia. In fact, if the controversy so excited is a fair illustration of what will happen under Imperial Federation, the fate of the latter will very likely hang in the balance from the start. In the debate in the Transvaal Legislative Council, Sir Percy Fitzgerald criticised the premiers of Australia and New Zealand for having cabled their conviction that Chinese labor should be prohibited in the Rand district. He said these opinions must be based upon profound ignorance of conditions in the Transvaal; that dictation from sister colonies would be disastrous, and that the example of Australia was not always one for emulation. What Sir Percy says is: "Confound your impudence! You can send us troops, but we do not need your advice." But if kindly advice is to be labelled "dictation" and resented, it is time for Mr. Chamberlain to take action. If Australia wants to lay down the law for South Africa in a matter in which its interest is largely academic, and South Africa takes to calling Australia names in consequence, what is likely to happen when a question arises which actually affects the material interests of the different parts of the Empire?

THE CASE OF BUNAU-VARILLA.

One clause of the resolution introduced by Senator Hoar on December 9 requested information of the President "whether the officials negotiating or ratifying the treaty on the part of Panama had any personal or private interest in or relation to the construction of a canal across the Isthmus of Panama." This, of course, looked straight at Monsieur Philippe Bunau-Varilla. He, as Consul Ehrman elegantly put it in his telegram to Secretary Hay, was "the party" named to negotiate the treaty. This he did, moreover, between luncheon and dinner, in his triple capacity of French engineer, Panama Company stockholder, and opéra-bouffe Minister of Panama. It is clear, therefore, that Senator Hoar's inquiry squinted hard at an attitude marked by gross impropriety, to say the least.

But the scandal of M. Bunau-Varilla's connection with the Panama revolution grew much more flagrant as the facts came out. Senator Hoar did not know on December 9 what he learned from the New York *Tribune* of December 21. That pro-Roosevelt, pro-Panama newspaper printed on the date mentioned a letter from a special correspondent at Panama from which we take the following pertinent extract:

"Doctor Amador's visit to Washington having proved fruitless, and there being no longer any necessity for secrecy, he went to New York and took apartments at the Waldorf-Astoria. There he fell in with M. Philippe Bunau-Varilla, who had resided on the Isthmus as a canal engineer, and with whom he was acquainted. Varilla was then in the States in the interest of the New Panama Canal Company, and, their sentiments being more or less the same, Dr. Amador unfolded to Varilla the plans of the conspirators at Panama. From this point the project progressed rapidly. Dr. Amador returned to the Isthmus early in October, and at a meeting of the seven conspirators, who gathered in the office of the electric-lighting company in Panama, he related the result of his visit to the States. He had received no assurance from any official of support, but communicated to his fellows the fact that Varilla had assured him in the most positive terms that any stroke in favor of independence, having as its primary object the grant to the American Republic of a canal concession, would be supported by the United States Government. So elated was Dr. Amador over Varilla's assurances and so great was his confidence in the French engineer's ability to influence the Government at Washington, that he was unable to see any further difficulties in the way of executing the project."

This statement of fact, which has never been challenged, makes it legitimate to inquire who this man is who pretended to speak, and made the Panameños think he did speak, for the Government of the United States. Until very recently, he has been parading and haranguing the country. He was an honored guest of the Quill Club in this city, of which many clergymen are members. They should be interested in the character of the man they entertained. Boasting the closest relations with President Roosevelt and Secretary Hay, making his own personality as prominent and as offensive as pos-

sible, it is of the highest public interest, transcending any merely private likes or dislikes, to find out what this man's reputation has been. We propose, therefore, to translate a few passages from the documents annexed to the report of M. Vallé, formerly Minister of Justice in France, relative to M. Bunau-Varilla.

One of them is an extract from a paper signed by the *procureur-général*, M. Quesnay de Beaurepaire. It reads:

"M. Philippe Bunau-Varilla, formerly divisional superintendent of the work of the Panama Company, and at the moment director general *ad interim*, got up a company composed of his brother, a financier in Paris, and two promoters, and, while keeping his name concealed, took the lead in securing an important allotment. For him, the price per cubic metre was greatly increased [and that upon a proved overestimate of work done], while a series of contracts, successively combined with skill, enabled that concern to reap extraordinary profits. . . . The Panama Company, besides written agreements, paid over to Bunau, without the corresponding vouchers, sums amounting to 9,500,000 francs."

Further on in the report of the Minister of Justice appears the testimony of M. Martin, formerly secretary-general of the Panama Company. He had resigned, and the reason was that he could not agree to a proposed contract. As to this he declared:

"I must, indeed, add, to my great regret, this fact, which was, however, well known to many persons, that M. Bunau-Varilla had agreed to pay a rebate of 1.40 francs the cubic metre, on a total of 20,000,000 cubic metres, to Baron de Reinach. I got out, and I do not know if this scheme was carried out."

But the *procureur-général* adds: "Yes, the bargain was executed; the report of the expert shows it; it was even made more flagrant."

One tell-tale extract more, this time from the *Bulletin du Canal Inter-oceanique*:

"Contract of Artigue, Sonderegger and Bunau-Varilla:

"Amount excavated in the Paraiso section, 818,500 cubic metres.

"Amount paid for, 1,724,536 cubic metres.

"Percentage of overpayment, 110."

Minister Bunau-Varilla, has, through the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent declared these charges, based on official documents, to be all "calumnies." The newspapers giving them currency, whether in Paris or this country, he said he should not "answer," preferring to "leave them to the mercy of their own consciences" (but he has since called upon the *Evening Post* to retract). He added, with a swaggering touch which he must have learned from some smirched American politician, "Nothing can fill me with more pride than to see myself exposed to their impotent wrath." But we submit that an affair of such gravity cannot be disposed of thus lightly. It touches the dignity of this Government, as whose spokesman M. Bunau-Varilla has posed. It has a vital relation to an important public treaty which was so largely his personal work. Unless Minister Bunau-Varilla can at

once and decisively clear away the charges that rest upon his good name, President Roosevelt should intimate to him that his usefulness is at an end in this country. And then there should be apologies all around for having taken a treaty, highly objectionable in itself, from hands that a French Minister of Justice had reported not to be clean.

NEGRO EDUCATION AND THE SOUTH.

The address of welcome to the Northern scholars recently assembled at New Orleans intimated that the discussion of the negro problem has become a disease. If the assertion had been made that the relations with nine millions of black people in the Southern country had produced disorders in the minds of many of the whites, it would have been nearer the truth. Such conditions exist as must provoke constant and keen discussion in regard to remedies and their application. This is a mark of healthy interest, not of disease.

The remedy proposed by Gov. Vardaman of Mississippi, in his inaugural address, for the checking of crime among the blacks will seem to some novel. It has been supposed that education tends to make men both better able to care for themselves and better fitted to be members of society. That has been our theory for more than two hundred and fifty years, and under it nearly twenty-one millions of foreigners have been assimilated in the last fifty years. But now we learn that the blacks are deteriorated by education. Gen. Armstrong, Booker Washington, and the trustees of Atlanta University have been working under a false idea. Their great enterprises and others which have absorbed hundreds of thousands of dollars and stirred the hearts of so many with hopes of great benefit to the blacks, were and are wasted efforts. There are more crimes to-day among the negroes than when they were slaves; therefore, all education is bad for them. This utterance would deserve less notice if the speaker were not the Governor of a State, and had not won his election by making appeals to prejudice and proclaiming contempt of law in dealing with negro criminals.

Gov. Vardaman is simply true to the traditions of the old slavery and to the hopes of the new. But suppose it to be a fact that in the State of Mississippi crime has increased. Are we not justified in asking for a closer connection between the pitiful education that the average colored boy gets in the country schools of the cotton States and crime than appears in this address? What is the precise deteriorating effect of a little reading and writing and arithmetic on the moral nature? If a boy is in school only ten weeks, and for the rest of the year roams in idleness, or,

helping his father on the hired land, hears him profanely denounce the extortions and robberies practised on him by his landlord and merchant-banker, is it the schooling or something else that leads the boy into crime? Three millions of colored children of the school age live in the Southern States. More than half of them are probably not in school any year, and the rest perhaps in school on the average for fifteen weeks. When one reads in a paper published in an enlightened Southern city, in one issue, that one colored boy of nine and another of twelve years were condemned to thirty days' work with the chain gang, and in another issue that four boys of twelve years were at one time sentenced to fifty days in jail, one may feel the pathos of the situation both for the guilty boys and for the State without being sure that school training had made thieves of these boys. Required schooling for all boys and girls thirty weeks in the year for seven years could be called real education. Nothing short of this amount will enable any one to say from the standpoint of the State that education for the blacks is, or is not, a failure. How many years must elapse before the triumph of fairness and candor and reason and enlightened self-interest as to the absolute necessity of so much training will come in these States! It would take annually from seventy-five to eighty millions of dollars to teach the colored children of the South as the children of Massachusetts are taught. At present six millions are spent upon them. It is something, it is much; but, under the present arrangement, often the brightest colored children in the towns are kept at work, and often those least likely to profit by schooling are the ones in regular attendance.

They are as a rule desirous of instruction, or at least they think they are, and the reports show that the colored children walk on the average longer distances than the whites to gain their privileges. But are even the present privileges, limited as they are, to be withheld? Is the negro, driven by competition out of many callings previously open to him, to be deprived of the little schooling he now enjoys? Is he to be condemned to the cottonfield and kept there under conditions so depressing that he cannot get ahead, and are his children to be denied the opportunity of improving their minds a little and winning a little better chance than he had for the unequal race of life? It is well known that the hostility of the poor whites in the neighborhood of the Calhoun settlement when it was first established, was almost unendurable. That same spirit prevails largely in the cotton belt. Of that spirit Gov. Vardaman is to-day the most prominent spokesman, and the danger of backward steps as a result of such utterances by such politicians

deserves consideration. Nor must we forget, in estimating the danger, the excitable character of the Southerner—his hasty judgments, his quick resentment of supposed insult, and his intolerance of criticism. The sweeping influence of superficial, intriguing leaders under present conditions is much to be deplored. Nevertheless, it must not be believed that this movement for education can go backward.

The solid institutions of learning, colleges, universities, and normal schools, established in the South, both for blacks and whites, and the attention they are attracting for good work; the really enlightened and candid minds governing public opinion in certain localities; the constant and stimulating communication between these leaders in education; the influence and sympathy and pecuniary support of many noble Northern men, given with true courtesy and charity; the silent leavening of the scattered graduates of the great schools like Tuskegee (not 10 per cent. of whom can be found living in idleness *any part of the year*, Booker Washington assures us); the increasing ownership of land by negroes in some of these States—such influences as these can be expected to prove a great bulwark against the tide rising in the cotton belt for the abolition of education for the blacks. They will surely prevent that tide from destroying or greatly abridging the present opportunity given by the States for negro education. There may be occasional and temporary losses in certain regions, but there is large reason to hope, in spite of the destructive utterances of a few who voice the opposition of many, that the good already gained will in the main be held, and it is certain that if the advance already gained is maintained, it will be the means of greater progress. The position for the Northern friends of the blacks to take is: disregarding all hysteria in Southern expression, to continue to extend generous help to every sound educational enterprise in the South, and to cherish and express unfailing sympathy and warm admiration for those who, in the face of great difficulties, are heroically maintaining the necessity of good schooling for every child without distinction in all these commonwealths.

AN IMPERIALISTIC CHOSEN RACE.

It is a matter of inexhaustible dispute among ethnologists whether we have religious rites because of an antecedent religious feeling, or whether, contrariwise, we have religion because men found it necessary to explain rites which were irrationally established already. Recent events give color to the latter hypothesis. Nations trespass against nations without alleged warrant. Then come the apologists with abundant political and moral arguments for the deed;

finally, theology takes a hand, and provides the acceptable sanction of religion. Thus Imperialism, from gross aggression, becomes a high political expediency or moral duty, and at last passes into an article of faith. The Roman augur who asserted that the omens were infallible because they agreed, after the event, with the fact of the repulse of Hannibal, would probably have been mocked at. Our times would have hailed him an accomplished priest of the god of things as they are.

Such a high priest is the cosmopolitan savant, Mr. M. Houston-Stewart Chamberlain, whose work, 'The Bases of the Nineteenth Century,' is being exhaustively discussed in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The book might appropriately be called a compend of Imperialist religion. This 'Summa' of a new St. Thomas is appropriately directed against heathen; and in order that the faithful may be edified and the unbeliever the sooner confounded, an anonymous donor—the Kaiser, it is hinted—has had the tractate put into more than two thousand German libraries. But the vogue of Mr. Chamberlain's book is less notable than its doctrine. He assumes as axiomatic the existence of a chosen people with an irrefragable warrant to go in and possess the lands of all other people—Hebraism this, in its straitest form, although Hebrews are Mr. Chamberlain's pet aversion. And the chosen people is determined by the simple process of observing those who have exercised a successful covetousness towards all that is their neighbors'. Since the fall of the Roman Empire the great invading nations have been the Slavs and Germans, in the wider sense, and the Celts. Why the Celts, is not apparent, except that they have shown a remarkable faculty for amalgamating with their conquerors. By simply taking the three élite racial stocks together, one gets the chosen people, the future wielders of universal empire—namely, the Celto-Slavo-Germans. Only upon reflection does the comprehensiveness of this Imperialistic trinity become apparent. The deity of Celto-Slavo-Germanism not only justifies the vast aggressions of Russia and England in the nineteenth century, but it also sanctions beforehand all that Germany may choose to appropriate during the twentieth.

It is an eminently practical religion, dividing with absolute precision the elect from the non-elect. All that is Celto-Slavo-German is predestined to rule; all that is not, to serve. So all the yellow races are examples of decadence; savage and Latin nations are, on the other hand, pitiful cases of arrested development. The only hope of both classes is to be absorbed by the Celto-Slavo-Germans. So much for the Imperialist religion in its broad outlines. It predicates the further advance of

England, America, and Russia, and it promises that Germany will join in the movement, while it declares the corresponding decline of the rejected races to be written in the stars.

Naturally, the soundest principle encounters awkward cases when it comes to be applied to confused phenomena. For example, Mr. Chamberlain's theology staggers when it is called upon to explain the city of New York. Why should Celts reign supreme, oppressing the native (Germanic) stock and the undeveloped immigrants with celestial impartiality? Here is a conflict of divine essences, and a theoretical flaw in the system. But, generally, Mr. Chamberlain skirts these obstacles with the skill of a born casuist. For example, David, the single great and good King of Israel—how did a monarch of his type spring from the basé seed of Abraham? Simply enough. There were in Palestine certain blond interlopers—Hittites, perhaps—in any case, Celto-Slavo-Germans. Of these whatever was really effective in Israel was born.

Naturally, the French reviewer for the *Deux Mondes*, M. Ernest Seillière, is anxious to fix the ethnic position of his own nation. Are the French, who have assuredly a large Celtic and Germanic admixture, Celto-Slavo-Germans, or are they merely backward Latins, and doomed to speedy extinction? Here the oracle speaks with ambiguous voice. When the French peasants rose in 1789 they struck "with the proverbial fury of the German who has too long been patient"; but when in three months or so the representatives of these same peasants, at Versailles, drew up the famous "Declaration of the Rights of Man," it was "the work of the wordiest people of the universe in its wordiest period." Clearly, the French are eligible for either lot. If they successfully rule their arid colonies of Africa and the fever-stricken plains of Tonkin, they may easily become constructive Celto-Slavo-Germans. Should, however, a more voracious Bismarck arise, they may handily be subjugated as the worst of the Latin nations.

How absolutely repugnant to democracy and to Christianity this new religion is need not be remarked. Note merely that it is no more open to a people to acquire Celto-Slavo-Germanism than it is for the Ethiopian to change his skin. Because the British flag girdled the earth, and Russia came to the Pacific in the last century, and Germany is emulous of such achievement in this, the remainder of the human race is doomed to perpetual inferiority. Mr. Chamberlain's dogma could only have been conceived in an age that detests philosophy and has now turned its back on humor. Never in the past have such elaborate pains been taken to prove that whatever is right. How much more

wholesome, nay, how much more humane, than this ethnological claptrap is Machiavelli's conception of the world as one great cockpit, and his tranquil enumeration of the ways in which dominion may be won—"by one's own arms or another's, by luck, or by craft."

OCEANICA'S RESPONSE.

The news from New Zealand does not hang together very well. In one breath we are informed that a new fortnightly steamship service is to be established between Great Britain and the colony, and that this will benefit the trade of the United States. But almost at the same moment comes a long statement from our consul at Auckland regarding the new preferential tariff which New Zealand enacted last November, and which is aimed principally at American goods.

This New Zealand tariff is the first, and so far the only tangible, result of the Chamberlain agitation. From all the facts that can be gathered, there is nothing to show that the colony will gain anything from its hasty procedure. But it is always Premier Seddon's purpose to ride in the "band wagon." He is not built, for instance, like Hon. Alfred Deakin, Prime Minister of the Commonwealth of Australia. This statesman is as noble a Roman as Mr. Seddon. As far back as 1887 he advocated a protectionist tariff for Great Britain, and he believes in preferential duties today. But he is too old a hand to make rash promises. Mr. Chamberlain, he says, wants the British electors to make proposals to the colonies. But he plainly intends to know what those proposals are before committing himself. He has a good deal to say about "a most cordial and generous consideration" of the Chamberlain scheme, and he has splendid visions of the future of Australian wheat and butter; but he also says that, though the mother country has risen up, and the time is ripe for the development of national trade, "it will be no easy task to achieve that object." At heart, the Australian Premier is governed by a cheese-paring policy. But Mr. Seddon is the soul of generosity. He puts it all on the ground of duty. He told the New Zealand Parliament that it was their duty to make a distinction between their own kindred and alien nations; "by so doing they were affirming a great principle." Then came a burst of magnanimity such as has rarely been equalled. He asked for nothing from the mother country in return, he said; he had invariably refused to do so. In fact, he had always left it for the imperial authorities to give something, "if they saw fit."

He has lived up to his principles—after a fashion. He jammed a most astonishing tariff measure through Parliament without allowing time for consideration.

The absurdity of the law was so evident that he was forced to admit "that the proposals might not be economically sound, but it was a political necessity." This is going our "friends of protection" better. Under the new law there is an extra duty of 100 per cent. on cement. On the bulk of the imports the "extra" is 50 per cent. of the regular rate; and on a large number of articles previously admitted free there is a charge of 20 per cent. The duty on British-grown tea has been remitted. The Premier mentioned the United States in particular as a country against which it was necessary to take definite action. He showed his regard for us by increasing the duty on boots and shoes 50 per cent., these forming our principal exports to New Zealand. He did the same with our next largest item, hardware; and bicycles, also a leading feature, find themselves in the same box. Among the heaviest imports from the United States have been iron and steel and printing paper. These were formerly on the free list, but must hereafter pay 20 per cent. Evidently, the Premier does not take kindly to the fact that while the colony's total imports since 1893 have increased 64 per cent., those from the United States alone show a gain of 248 per cent.

The Auckland merchants back Mr. Seddon up in his assertion that the tariff is not economically sound. They point out that the New Zealand farmers will have to pay about \$10 a ton more for their fencing wire than formerly, for the benefit of the English manufacturers. For some years past, most of the rails used in the colony have come from the United States and Germany; but henceforth the orders will go to the United Kingdom, where the prices have been higher. The same may be said of other commodities. But a good many articles, (such as engines, motor cars, etc.) cannot be obtained in Great Britain, as the English firms have more domestic orders than they can take care of. In short, the passing of the tariff bill means the exclusion of certain American goods and the placing of orders in a market incapable of meeting the demand. But Mr. Seddon is wise in his generation: he has decreed that printing paper imported by newspapers shall be admitted free for three years. And he has taken care to omit from the schedules articles (imported largely from foreign countries) which are indispensable to the colony, such as American axes and other tools and agricultural implements and machinery, as regards which this country is better able to meet the New Zealand requirements than is Great Britain. Kerosene is also omitted.

But no great man can hope to escape calumny. The leader of the Opposition had the hardihood to tell Mr. Seddon that his speech on the tariff contained a great deal of Jingoism and very little about the subject under discussion. One

reason for the tariff, he thought, was "the Premier's desire for an international advertisement." Some of the New Zealanders have begun to think that you can advance taxes too fast; the revenue per head has gone up from \$16.31 in 1896 to \$19.86. In seven years the public debt has increased from \$215,054,778 to \$260,357,850, and the per-capita debt from \$292.65 to \$320.03. It is well to keep the heavy indebtedness of Australia also in mind. If preferential trade ever comes to a vote of the people, the British taxpayers may be a little frightened at the idea of an alliance with communities which have gone on at such a rapid pace.

HERMANN VON HOLST.

The death of Hermann Eduard von Holst, in Freiburg, Germany, on January 20, brings grief to a circle of former students and associates, who knew the personality of the man; and it is an untimely loss to productive scholarship in American history. In 1881 he was already stricken with the disease of the stomach which limited his activity, and finally put an end to his life. He once said that he thought it was due to the privations of the household of his father, a poor Livonian parson. You would never learn from him that he was most of the time in severe physical pain; nevertheless, the greater part of his intellectual work was done in such a physical condition that many men would have gone to the hospital and comfortably given up the ghost. Disease and suffering often laid him by for long periods together, but if he could sit at his desk at all, he worked with a thoroughness and application which were in themselves a lesson to the student. On the day of his departure from New York for Strassburg he married an American lady, whose strength and serenity of mind and whose intellectual interest made her a power in her husband's life, unusual in a German family. A son and a daughter have grown up in this intellectual atmosphere. Von Holst had an enjoyment in repose which hardly comes out in his books. He had very strong likes and dislikes, and one of the objects of his animadversions was the German, and especially the South German, male habit of spending the evenings, week in and week out, in the Wirtshaus, leaving the family at home.

When one remembers that Von Holst occupied professorships in three different universities, and was twice called to another, it is interesting that he did not enter the academic life till seven years after his academic preparation ended. A student at Dorpat in his native province, where he was born, at Fellin, June 19, 1841, he took his doctor's degree at Heidelberg in 1865, and after a short experience as private tutor came to the United States in 1867. Poor, unknown, friendless, he nevertheless began his literary career by several years of work on the 'Deutsch-Amerikanisches Konversations-Lexikon.' Indirectly, this was the beginning of his career as an historian and university professor. After the North German Confederation was formed in 1867, some excellent Bremen merchants looked about for somebody who could expound the workings of universal suffrage

in America, and Von Sybel recommended the young Von Holst. He set to work, but found the subject outrunning the plan, and finally announced that he could write a constitutional history of the United States, but not the smaller task that had been laid upon him. He used to say that he always sent the Bremen merchants his volumes as they appeared, but he was sure they did not read them. The first volume of his History appeared in 1873, and by the freshness and vigor of its treatment at once gave him a prominent place among American historians.

In 1872 the way opened up for a continuation of his literary work, through a professorship in the new University of Strassburg, and here he began his academic life at a salary of a thousand thalers; he afterwards averred that his service there was perhaps the happiest period of his life. After two years he was transferred to Freiburg, where he remained for about eighteen years, steadily growing in reputation both as a lecturer and as a writer. He was in much request for public addresses, and became known throughout Germany as a man of power. For a time Von Holst was tutor to the Crown Prince of Baden, and he retained the personal friendship of the Grand Duke, who appointed him a member of the Herrenhaus or upper chamber of the Baden Parliament. Later he sat as member for the University of Freiburg. His legislative services were long and worthy, but he was rather an expert than a representative of the people. In 1890, when Bismarck was pushing matters hard in Germany, Von Holst took the field in a hopeless contest as an anti-Bismarckian for a seat in the Reichstag from his district. Yet he lived to hold a milder view of Bismarck's character. This legislative and practical experience was useful to him, but he never lost sight of the main purpose of his life, which was to complete his Constitutional History.

In his classroom Von Holst always appeared strong and confident. He had a great contempt for the German professor who cannot be heard, or if heard shows himself slipshod in speech. It was his habit to ponder over his writing, and to go into the classroom with his mind full of the subject, and with the succession of topics clearly in memory; and then to speak without note, with a determination and power unusual in German universities. Standing before his class, glowering at them over his desk, he spoke in full, rich, and rounded sentences, always striking hard, always striving to emphasize the great things, and coming back again and again to what he thought essential principles. Notes on his lectures are serviceable rather as revealing the results of his mental processes than as giving a connected body of detail. To him facts came into lectures as illustrations, as incidents significant of tendencies.

He had an unfailing interest in the men of history, treating them not only as leaders, but as types and revealers of human aspirations. In the statesmen of the French Revolution he recognized tremendous social forces, and the Reign of Terror he illustrated with the grim smile of Saturn devouring his own children. Although fluent and accurate in English conversation and possessed of a rousing English style, both in speech and in writing, he never felt

so much at home in that language as in German, and for this diffidence he paid dear by refraining from scrutinizing the English translation of his History. It was his practice both in his lectures and in his books to introduce short and vivid quotations, a practice uncommon among German professors, and admirably suited to his incisive and emphatic method. By nature he was endowed with a spark of that mysterious quality called eloquence; behind the exact and formal side of his speech, there lay a sense of the springs that move the human heart, and he was at his best when called upon to make a formal address on a theme of human interest.

In 1892 he was called to be head professor of history at the University of Chicago. The prospect was alluring; through his residence when a young man and through several long visits subsequently, he had become acquainted with the country, and understood the possibilities of influence through a great university. Twice called to Johns Hopkins, the second time he declined only for reasons of health. When the Chicago call came he was living happily in Freiburg. He was a man of influence there and throughout the university world, and the completion of his Constitutional History in 1891 left him freer than for twenty years. On the other hand, his great influence and his constituency were both in America, and the opportunities for new work on American history were better over seas; and even the university professor must think of his own future and that of his children.

The transfer was made, but the result was in many respects a disappointment. Accustomed to a university system uniform and well articulated, he was dismayed at the amount of foundation work which had to be done in America, and he complained that his graduate students had not had proper undergraduate training. The academic routine was distasteful to him, and he would know nothing of the records and reports and grades which are the pride of American university administration. A man resolute in facing difficulties, he could have found his way out of this one but for disease. He was physically unable to accept the position of influence in the community which was offered to him by his friends, and especially by the German-Americans; and his class work had to be confined within narrow limits, and was often interrupted by months of illness, while he was unable to carry out plans for literary work. The German university freedom he carried with him to Chicago University, and he sometimes expressed his mind on great public questions with unmistakable clearness and conviction; in the resulting controversies he could always give as hard a blow as he got.

At first Von Holst and his friends hoped that he would come out into a physical condition which would allow him to finish his career, but year after year he lost ground; his public activities ceased; his courses were more and more interrupted. In 1900 he could no longer act as a lecturer, and with regret withdrew from the University of Chicago, but till the day of his death he remained titular professor and loyal adherent of that institution. After he crossed the ocean eastward in 1900, he recognized that his days were numbered. He went to Italy, to Freiburg, and to Switzer-

land, trying to find at least comfort, until the heart which had so valiantly beaten served the brain no longer, and the undreaded end came.

Although distinguished as a teacher and a man of large public influence, Von Holst's life-work was the writing of history, and his future reputation must depend on the impression made by his historical production. By nature he had many of the qualifications of the historian, the first of which was his extraordinary sense of materials. Any one who frequently went in and out of his house, sat at his table, and entered his library can bear testimony to the steady, unwearying use of sources which enabled the historian to come to his own conclusions. The literature of American history has much developed in thirty years, and we do not now realize that Von Holst hewed a path through a forest, nor how many forgotten pamphlets and memoirs and political discussions have been brought to the attention of scholars through his footnotes. His own library was not large, though well selected; but it consisted principally of sources, and he supplemented his own materials by work in the British Museum and in the large collections in America. He was one of the first writers on American history to realize the wealth of fact and contemporary discussion to be found in the records of Congressional debates and in the newspapers; and his patient and persistent labor among those diffuse sources gave him his sureness of grasp on questions of political motive and tendency.

The second characteristic of Von Holst as a literary workman was his habit of meditation. As he came to a new chapter he filled his mind full of materials and then began to consider, often walking silently up and down his library. When the thought had come pat, he would sit down and write a sentence or two in his small, neat, and legible hand. That part of the work was done. He rewrote very little and made few corrections in proof. Every page of his books is the residuum of hard, patient thinking. Throughout his life he made little use of other people; he sometimes said that if he could have collected his material as Bancroft did, through searchers and assistants, he might have made a better history, but it would certainly have been a very different one. Another characteristic of Von Holst's work is his care to give his authorities. Aware of the pitfalls that lie in wait for the most conscientious writer, throughout his History he made liberal quotations in his footnotes; because, he said, people would not accept his conclusions without evidence before them.

Von Holst's style is both concentrated and digressive; he writes with strong, meaty expression, and to leave out a sentence or a word alters the meaning. On the other hand, he uses metaphor too freely, and not always consistently. His conception of constitutional history was that, having given a background of events, he must interrupt the course of the historical narrative to discuss the motives of public men and the principles involved in a controversy. These characteristics make the History close and sometimes hard reading, and it suffers in translation, not only because of the incompetence of the translator, but because of the lack of precise equivalents for many German political terms. For in-

stance, Von Holst felt that injustice had been done to his point of view by the translation of "Souveranität der Gesetzgebung" into "sovereignty of law." The characteristic note of his style is conviction; he hammers at his anvil with staccato blows, which sometimes grow monotonous, but throughout all his writings there is a sense of a message to mankind.

He always had the true historical conception of the truth, the duty of seeking it, the necessity of separating it out of conventions and out of agreements to disregard it, the inevitableness of truth as the sole explanation of history. The truth that he cared most about, to the establishment of which he devoted most of his life, was that slavery was irreconcilable with free government, and therefore the cause of a political disease which could be cured only by the eradication of the poison. In the year 1904 it seems a platitude to say that slavery was the principal question before the American people for thirty years, from 1830 to 1860; that unless slavery could be put in the way of peaceful eradication, it would lead to civil war. The Abolitionists said so, a few writers after the civil war suggested it, but the great service of Von Holst to mankind was to put his training, his historical acumen, his great vitality, to the task of showing it by historical evidence. He loved the intellectual satisfaction of proving his point, and he had also a noble instinctive belief in personal freedom, which made his work seem to him a moral duty.

But his 'Constitutional and Political History of the United States' is not a complete history; it is really after the first volume only a history of the slavery contest. You would not infer from his book that the subjects about which people talked and disputed during thirty years were usually the tariff, the bank, the canals, the Treasury, the navy, squabbles with foreign Powers, Old Hickory, appointments to office, or the last horse race; or that, outside of politics, there was an intellectual and material growth of surprising swiftness. Probably the future historians of the decades from 1880 to 1900 will write of the new commercial and social organization, and will equally leave out most of the things which habitually interest Americans, or at least fill their newspapers. Granting its limitations, the History is a complete, well-rounded work; in method, in materials, and in spirit, worthy of a great scholar. It is too long for the general reader, and, since Von Holst began, the field has been traversed by other trained writers; but it remains a sincere contribution to the history of America, a book with which every future student of the period must reckon.

Besides the six large volumes (seven in translation), aggregating 4,000 pages of close print, the result of the conscientious labor of over twenty years, Von Holst put forth two other groups of writings. In 1885 he published his 'Constitutional Law of the United States' as a part of the Marquardsen series of monographs on public law; it was translated in 1887. This admirable book, the fruition of a ripe scholarship, has had less circulation and influence than it deserves. Too brief to compete with the standard text-books on constitutional law, it is really a sketch of the principles of American Government; and he was one of the few writers to understand that State

and local governments are a part of the American system. The 'Constitutional Law' follows Story's doctrine, but the book is throughout enlivened and enriched by shrewd and penetrating generalizations as to the unwritten practice which makes such a large part of our real government. Some fugitive writings in the same field appeared from time to time, notably the 'Was ist und wie entsteht Verfassungsrecht.'

An acute critic of questions of government, Von Holst's main interest was always historical. His 'French Revolution Tested by Mirabeau's Career,' published at Chicago in 1894, and based on a cyclus of university lectures, shows many of his characteristics as a writer, especially his interest in the personality of Mirabeau and Danton, who loom out of the mist of that time as Titans, yet as men. Throughout the History we have occasional portraits: a John Tyler, who has no redeeming quality except weakness; a Pierce and Buchanan, who ought not to be admitted to good society; a somewhat slighting view of Seward (a view successfully combated by one of his own pupils, Frederic Bancroft).

Two of these portraits Von Holst chose to delineate in separate frames—Calhoun and John Brown. The 'John Brown,' translated in 1889, is one of the last of Von Holst's systematic writings, and though in a certain sense a preliminary study for a part of the last volume of his History, it stands out as a cameo among his writings. His contention that Brown was not responsible for the Pottawatomie massacre has been disproved by later evidence. Nevertheless, the book seizes upon the real meaning and purpose of Brown's life and death, namely, the desperate proof to the South that there were abolitionists who so hated slavery that they would freely sacrifice their lives to undermine it. As Calhoun is dear to Von Holst, even in the midst of his illogic, so John Brown is dear even in the midst of his reckless violence. The contrast between Brown's methods and the peace and good order of the community, the comparison of Brown with outlaws and bandits, do not trouble Von Holst; for he sees in him the man who dies that others may live, the prophet and forerunner of the civil war.

The 'Calhoun,' first published in 1882, is in many ways Von Holst's masterpiece. It includes the whole doctrine of his History, for in Calhoun he rightly recognizes the typical advocate of slavery. The narrow, gloomy, and prophetic character attracted Von Holst; he made attempts, unfortunately then unsuccessful, to find the Calhoun correspondence, and to get behind the reserve of the man into his private character. In Calhoun he sees no enemy of the Union nor of his country, but a high-minded and patriotic man, overwhelmed by the impossible task of reconciling slavery with progress and with the liberty of the white man. Von Holst calls him the Cassandra of the slavery contest, always foretelling the truth, always unable to convince his friends. In his appreciation of Calhoun Von Holst went as far as his intense nature permitted towards the understanding of the other side, and the style is spirited and effective.

When Von Holst came over to this country in 1867 he hastened to declare his intention to become an American citizen. As a German professor, of course he resumed

his German citizenship; but when he came to Chicago it was with the purpose of identifying himself again with America. Illness drove him away, but when the writer saw him in the fall of 1902, he found him full of interest in what he looked upon as his own country. "Tell my friends in America," said he, "that I was never so good an American as now, that I never loved my country so much. I would go back there now, but I am no longer able to cross the sea. There is something stifling here. Never have I so appreciated America. Never have I so understood the noble aims of the American people."

We cannot close this notice without some mention of Dr. von Holst's relations to the *Nation*. They began during his residence in this city in the autumn of 1869, and passed from review-writing to correspondence on his return to Europe in the seventies. For the next decade he was too much engrossed, but in the early part of his connection with the University of Chicago, there was a brief renewal of his service to a journal with which he was ever in sympathy. Among the reviews three of the most brilliant were in the domain of French history, with Gambetta, Thiers, and Napoleon (in Lanfrey's *Life*) for their themes.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

DETROIT, January, 1904.

The meeting at Ann Arbor and Detroit was notable for more than one reason. It was the first meeting of the Association at the greatest of the State universities; it was the first joint meeting held in the West; and it was the meeting at which the new constitution was adopted.

The geographical problem is growing in importance, not alone in this society, but in all national societies; and the experiences of the Modern Language Association possess general interest. There was a time, not long ago, when so large a proportion of our institutions of learning were in the East that those west of the Alleghany Mountains could justly be ignored. With the development of the Mississippi valley this changed, and it was found necessary to give some sort of recognition to the Middle-West or North-Central section. The present distribution of the members is, in brief, as follows: Exclusive of half-a-dozen Europeans, the Modern Language Association now has a regular membership of about 630. Of these there are 623 in the United States and seven in Canada. Of the former, 136 live in New England (Massachusetts 79, Connecticut 31, New Hampshire 9, Maine 8, Rhode Island 6, Vermont 3), and 232 in the Middle Atlantic States (New York 109, Pennsylvania 55, Maryland 33, Virginia 15, New Jersey 13, District of Columbia 3, West Virginia 2, Delaware 2). In these two sections, which form what is generally meant by the East, there are thus 368 members, or about 59 per cent. of the whole. The next largest group is that of the Central States, or the upper Mississippi valley, which has 180 members (Illinois 49, Ohio 35, Wisconsin 18, Missouri 16, Michigan 14, Indiana 14, Iowa 12, Kansas 8, Minnesota 5, Nebraska 4, Kentucky 4, North Dakota 1), that is, 29 per cent., or just one-half as large a representation as the East. The two remaining groups are small and their mem-

bers scattered. The South has 49 (Tennessee 10, North Carolina 9, Georgia 6, Louisiana 6, Texas 5, South Carolina 5, Mississippi 4, Arkansas 3, Alabama 1), or 8 per cent.; the Far West has 26 (California 12, Washington 4, Colorado 4, Oregon 3, Montana 1, Utah 1, New Mexico 1), or 4 per cent.

The first recognition accorded the Middle West consisted in the choosing of a Western city as the place of meeting. But it was found that this resulted in the Eastern men's staying away. As Professor Thomas put it in his charming smoke-talk at Detroit, it is a thousand miles from Chicago to New York, and two thousand miles from New York to Chicago. The next step was the organization of Western societies. These soon found it advisable to merge with the national societies, at least in the matters of fees and publications. Thus arose the Central Division of the Modern Language Association, and the Philological Association of the Pacific Coast. The latter is now organized as the Western Branch of the American Philological Association, but its modern-language element predominates.

These smaller organizations made it possible for men to meet without going to the great expense of a long journey, but at the same time they defeated a part of the object of such meetings. The Western man does not care so much to see other Western men and visit institutions very much like his own. He has a natural desire to see "the big guns," most of whom are stationed along the seaboard, and to become acquainted with the leading institutions of the East and catch something of their local atmosphere. It was in response to some such feeling as this that occasional joint meetings of the national body and the Central Division were proposed. But when a joint meeting was held in the East, there was practically a return to the original state of things. Moreover, it was natural that the affiliated organization should retain some of the features of its independent origin which did not harmonize with its relation to the national society. It therefore occurred to various members of the Association that it was desirable to have a reorganization that would remove the objectionable or inconsistent features of the present *modus vivendi*, and more satisfactorily meet the various difficulties of the geographical problem. The draft of a new constitution was accordingly made and submitted to the officers of the national organization and those of the Central Division, and this was finally submitted to the Association assembled in joint session at Ann Arbor.

According to this constitution, which was received with general favor and adopted with unimportant amendments, there is one Modern Language Association, whose executive council may authorize as many as three Divisions, though there is no immediate prospect of more than one, namely, that already organized. The meetings of the Association, or parent organization, will be held at such place and time as the Executive Council may determine; but as often as once in four years there shall be a union meeting at some central point in the interior of the country. In that year no Division meeting can take place. That three out of four meetings of the Association will be held in the East, anywhere from Cambridge to Charlottesville,

is taken for granted. In other words, by the new arrangement, the East has the prestige of retaining the national organization rather than having an Eastern Division, and has practical control of the election of the president in the three years that the meeting is held in the East. The Western men have more material advantages: they are assured a meeting (either of their Division or of the national body) in their own territory every year; they can, if they choose, attend the Eastern meetings with the consciousness of being regular members of the body, and not merely visitors from one Division to another Division; and they do not have to go out of their territory in order to vote on the officers that are elected at a union meeting and hold office until the next union meeting.

The officers of the Association are to be a president, three vice-presidents, a secretary, and a treasurer, who, together with nine other members, constitute the Executive Council. There is also an editorial committee, of which the secretary is the chairman. The president and the vice-presidents are to be elected annually at the meeting of the Association. All other officers will be elected at union meetings only. Vacancies occurring between two union meetings are to be filled by the Executive Council. The officers of a Division shall be a chairman (no longer a president) and a secretary.

In the light of what has just been said, the geographical distribution of those attending the meeting at Ann Arbor is of interest. New England sent 9 delegates (Massachusetts 5, Connecticut 3, Maine 1); the Middle Atlantic States 21 (New York 11, Pennsylvania 4, New Jersey 3, Delaware 1, West Virginia 1, Maryland 1); and Canada 2. There were thus 32 from the East as a whole. The North Central States sent 63 (Ohio 18, Illinois 17, Wisconsin 11, Iowa 6, Kansas 5, Michigan 3, not counting the Ann Arbor men, Indiana 2, Missouri 1). The South sent four (one each from Tennessee, Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia), and the Far West two (one each from California and Colorado). There were thus 101 that came to Ann Arbor. In other words, while about 60 per cent. of the members of the Association live in the East and but half as many in the Central States, at a union meeting held in the latter territory over 60 per cent. of those present came from that territory and but half as many from the East. From which it may be seen that in matters voted upon at a union meeting, the Western members, though half as numerous as the Eastern men, can easily outvote the Eastern men. The importance of this is obvious when it is considered that amendments to the constitution can be voted upon only at a union meeting, and all union meetings must be held in the West. Certainly, the Western men have no reason to find fault with the new order of things.

The way was prepared for the reorganization a year ago, when, at the sessions at Baltimore and Chicago, it was resolved to meet this year in joint session at Ann Arbor, and Professor Hempl was elected president of both organizations. When, some three months ago, it was announced that the meetings would be held only in part at Ann Arbor and in part in Detroit, there was some surprise and regret. The

arrangement was necessitated by the fact that, through an oversight, the Michigan State Teachers' Association had been invited to Ann Arbor for the same week that the University had invited the Modern Language Association. It was therefore arranged that the latter body begin its session on Monday and leave for Detroit Tuesday evening, just as the one thousand members of the State Association were arriving. It turned out that the arrangement was a happy one in various ways. It is more or less customary for the local members and their colleagues in the faculty to invite to their houses members from afar. This was done in Ann Arbor to an extent quite unparalleled. More than two-thirds of the incoming members were welcomed into the houses of the professors, and thus had an opportunity to get at least a glimpse of the charming social life that prevails at Ann Arbor. There is, however, a disadvantage connected with this private entertainment of guests. On the one hand, the younger and less known men come to the meeting with the expectation of falling in with the more prominent men, the promise of whose presence has been the chief inducement that attracted them to the meeting. But when they congregate at the hotel headquarters, they miss the very persons they most desired to meet. On the other hand, the visitor who is invited to the house of a friend soon finds that he is thereby debarred from meeting in a social way various members of the Association with whom he had anticipated further acquaintance or the revival of old memories. These disadvantages of kind hospitality were removed by the shift from Ann Arbor to Detroit, where all the members met at the Cadillac Hotel, in the beautiful dining hall, in the corridors, and in the classic banquet hall, in which the sessions were held.

The Association was greeted at the opening session at Ann Arbor by President Angell. The high sense of duty that prompted Mr. Angell, in spite of his recent great bereavement, to keep his engagement to welcome to Ann Arbor the two large organizations which were that week the guests of the University, elicited the admiration as well as the sympathy of all. In speaking of Edward Walter, Calvin Thomas, George A. Hench, and the other modern-language men who in times past reflected credit upon the University of Michigan, there was a touch of tender regret, but otherwise the brief address was a clear and ardent plea for the study of literature rather than of philology.

In connection with this position of President Angell, it is significant that, of the nineteen papers read at this meeting, fourteen dealt either with pure literature or with the history of literature, and two with rhetoric; while only three could be classed as philological. As usual, there were more papers on German themes than on others: German 7, English 4, French 4, comparative literature 3, the relations of prose to poetry 1. Most of the papers were more or less technical. By the wise management of the present editorial committee, the distinctly technical papers were not read, but were presented by title, and some others were read in abstract only. The ablest of the regular papers were: that of Professor Gruener on the influence of Hoffmann upon Poe,

that of Professor Scott of Michigan on the most essential differentia of prose and poetry, that of Professor Carruth on the religion of Schiller, and that of Professor von Klenze on Goethe's successors in Italy in the nineteenth century. The paper of most general interest was the president's address. Professor Hempl took advantage of the opportunity to speak, in a way, for the Association to the outside world. He showed that the attitude assumed toward the mother tongue by the average teacher of English and by the average educated person is based upon antiquated and erroneous conceptions of the nature of language and of the function of the teacher of English. As a result, much of the time of the teacher is spent in trying to do what cannot be done, namely, to overcome the all-powerful forces that are constantly changing the language and producing varieties of English speech in the different parts of the English-speaking world. Speech is not primarily a matter of books and print, but of the tongue and the ear, one of the resultants of human activity and, consequently, determined by the life that men lead, and varying largely as the conditions of human life vary. In general, the paper was a plea for the rational treatment of what can and must be done in teaching English, and the abandonment of old-time trivial criticism and petty tinkering with the mother tongue.

The hospitality offered the Association has of late become perhaps almost too lavish, and that displayed by the Michigan people could not well be surpassed. Aside from the very general private entertainment of the visitors, the ladies of the faculty, in the name of the University Senate, gave a reception after the president's address on Monday evening and a luncheon on Tuesday noon, both in the attractive parlors of the women's gymnasium. Out of respect for the memory of Mrs. Angell, the reception was informal. On Tuesday evening the gentlemen were invited to the antique rooms that have been constructed out of the old Dutch church at Detroit, and now serve as the home of the University Club. Professor Michels of Jena, who was present as the guest of the Association, made a brief address. But the principal feature of the entertainment was the smoke-talk by Professor Calvin Thomas, out of whose humorous and often truly witty words there spoke a wisdom that soberer talk too often lacks.

For the first time in many years the Association was granted a railway rate of one and one-third fare. This concession was due chiefly to the efforts of the local committee, whose provisions, in general, for the comfort of the visitors were well planned and well carried out. Reports were presented from the various committees—for the Committee on International Correspondence by Professor Magill, and for the Committee on Bibliography by the secretary, in the absence of Professor Todd. President Hempl informed the Association that he had been requested to appoint a committee to meet with like committees from the American Philological Association and the National Educational Association for the purpose of devising a phonetic alphabet intended to serve as a uniform means of representing pronunciation in English dictionaries. The Association voted to sanction the action of the president and to express its hearty approval of the undertaking. Professor Emerson presented

a brief report for the Committee on Spelling and a more extended communication from the American Dialect Society, which is now in prosperous condition. The present officers of the Dialect Society were reelected. Professor Kittredge of Harvard succeeds Professor Hempl as president of the Modern Language Association. The next place of meeting will, in accordance with the new constitution, be determined upon by the Executive Council. Cordial invitations were received from Brown University and the University of Toronto. Professor Hohlfield of Wisconsin was chosen chairman of the Central Division, which will next meet at the Chicago buildings of Northwestern University.

Correspondence.

WHITE TEACHERS OF NEGROES IN THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of December 10, 1903, you review and comment on a recent publication, 'Negro Education in the South,' by A. A. Gunby. I have not read the book in question, but feel that I cannot let its statements (a) "It has long since been inflexibly decreed by unwritten law that white teachers must not teach negro schools," and (b) the want of "suitable teachers and decent school houses to teach in," go unchallenged.

I was born and reared in Charleston, S. C., and remembered that from my earliest childhood the city public schools for negro children were taught by white teachers entirely, and to my certain knowledge the buildings and equipment are the equal of the public schools for white children. But to be certain that the same conditions exist to-day, I have been away for eight years—I wrote to the City Superintendent for information, and he writes me that at present there are two city graded schools for negro children, one the Shaw School, with 1,015 pupils and 17 white teachers; the other, the Simonton School, with 1,207 pupils and 20 white teachers. These teachers are graduates of the representative colleges of the State, and are required to stand the same examinations to teach that those in white schools do; and again, promotions are made from one school to the other, i. e., from the negro to the white, or the reverse.

I grant, however, that in the rural districts and in the smaller towns the negro schools are taught almost invariably by negro teachers; but these negro teachers are also required to pass successfully the State examinations for teachers' certificates.

I only make this correction because just such unsubstantiated assertions cause a great deal of the friction between the races and so much of the unfavorable criticism of the South by sections where the negroes are few in number.—Yours truly,

E. B. FISHBURNE.

BLACKSTONE, VA., January 18, 1904.

[Our correspondent will not object to our reminding our younger readers that his experience has been *post bellum*, and that it was a statutory and lynch-law offence to teach slaves to read before the war. We welcome all evidence of a

humaner and more worldly-wise spirit at the South with reference to the negro in any relation, however sporadic it may be and unsupported by general public opinion. Mr. Gunby's statement (a) should be understood to read, "unwritten social law"; for, so far as our observation extends, there is a marked difference in the social status of white teachers at the South according as their pupils are white or black. We have even known this discrimination to affect two white instructors (women) arriving in company in a Southern town, and assigned respectively to a white and a colored school for trained nurses. "The one was taken and the other left" by polite society.—ED. NATION.]

PROFESSORS' SALARIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your timely article, "Some College Salaries," in No. 2009 of the *Nation*, would have struck at the root of a crying shame still deeper had you been fully acquainted with the splendid misery of the average professor's life. In honor of the American professor it can, indeed, be said that there are few who are not willing "to renounce money prizes for the larger returns of their calling if only they have enough to live in decency and comfort." That many, if not the majority, of them do not have this, can easily be verified by addressing a circular letter to their wives. From these unknown martyrs of self-denial and economy it may be learned what it means at the present time to live up to their positions, to dress and educate their children decently even in a small college town, and to fight with the various tradesmen who consider the "unworldly" professor their easy prey.

Nor does the professor's wife see why the college president should be exempt from the willingness of her husband to renounce money prizes for the larger returns of his calling. Is the president a better scholar? Does he buy more books? Does he "entertain" more and better? In a certain Western college it has happened that the president, who gets \$12,000 a year, asked his underpaid professors to pay for the crackers and tea with which they were afterwards "refreshed" at his reception.

May these lines meet the eyes of those who are in a position to better conditions which are a disgrace to the profession as well as to the country. VERITAS.

January 15, 1904.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will shortly publish 'The Neighbor: A Study of Race Prejudices,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'Methods of Industrial Peace,' by Nicholas P. Gilman; and a History of New Hampshire, by Frank B. Sanborn.

Prof. George E. Woodberry will furnish the 'Swinburne' in the Contemporary Men of Letters series of McClure, Phillips & Co.

Doubleday, Page & Co. announce 'The Fugitive,' a picture of Russian Jewish life, by Ezra S. Brudno.

A new edition of Prof. W. J. Ashley's

'Tariff Problem,' with five additional chapters calculated to keep the Chamberlain pot boiling, is in the press of P. S. King & Son, London.

The parent 'Who's Who' for 1904 (London: Black; New York: Macmillan) surpasses by some thirty pages its lusty American offspring, as well it may, since it is not confined to British or even English-speaking notabilities. The increase in bulk is greater than appears at first glance, since now the tables in front of the biographies have been wholly eliminated and will form the nucleus of a separate 'Who's Who Year-Book,' thus making two blades of grass grow where one grew before. We need not dwell on a work which has become indispensable for reference.

The fifth volume of the English Bible in the beautiful series of Tudor Translations published in London by David Nutt is occupied with the Apocrypha, and prepares the way for the New Testament. What with the Wisdom of Solomon, Ecclesiasticus, and Baruch, the poetry, typographically displayed as such, cuts a notable figure.

Shakspeare is now added to the "Oxford Miniature Poets," and is compressed into three volumes fairly to be called delectable but that the print is for young eyes only, to wit, the Tragedies; the Comedies; the Histories, Poems, and Sonnets. This is what the Oxford India paper can do for hand and pocket. Each play, we remark, has its own pagination, and each volume concludes with a glossary, but has no other apparatus. The three portraits are the Chandos, the Droeshout, and the Stratford bust.

An analysis of Tennyson's 'In Memoriam,' with captions, arguments, and paraphrases, by the late Charles Mansford, published about sixteen years ago for private circulation, is now offered to the public in a small, unpretentious handy volume (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Dutton). The "songs" marked off and numbered in this process are indexed by their first lines. Teachers and classes in literature will probably find their account here.

Canon Hensley Henson, of Westminster, has become prominent lately for his efforts to promote a better feeling between Church and Dissent. In pursuing this aim he has delivered, at his own church of St. Margaret's, a course of lectures now published under the title of 'Studies in English Religion in the Seventeenth Century' (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). They discuss the Pre-Laudian Church of England, Sabbatarianism, the Presbyterian Experiment, Erastianism, Casultry, and Toleration. They pay greater attention than is usual with Anglican writers to the Nonconformist literature of the period covered, but as contributions to ecclesiastical history they are somewhat elementary.—Canon Henson's own freedom from Church-and-State conventions may be judged from his declaration that the Act of Uniformity "belongs historically to the statutes of the Caroline Penal Code, of which it is now the solitary survivor; and so long as it remains on the statute-book the National Church is, in certain important directions, unable to advance or develop."

The 'Alphabet of Rhetoric,' by Rossiter Johnson (D. Appleton & Co.), is a convenient handbook and glossary combined. It gives an account of every figure of rhetoric from *anastrophe* to *synchorests*; numerous little articles on words; and a chapter on

elocution. It is intended as a familiar compendium for all who care to speak and write correctly. It also contains a short essay on conversation, in which the author describes well-known types of talkers who make themselves nuisances. The book abounds in good sense, and, though there is here and there some hair-splitting, there is no more, perhaps, than invariably goes with an ear for the niceties of language. We are not ourselves willing to reprobate the use of "bogus" in all cases, nor to put it in the same class with "kick" used in the sense of 'protest.' We agree that "up-to-date" is trite. The author is evidently one of those who think that there is a tendency to decadence in language, as there is in pronunciation and grammar, which needs to be fought against.

'The Metre of Macbeth,' by David Laurance Chambers (Princeton University Press), "attempts to show when certain metrical phenomena appeared in Shakspeare's work, why they appeared (as far as that can be determined), and what stage they had reached in 'Macbeth.'" This promise of the preface seems well carried out in the treatise. It takes up one after the other each of those factors in Shakspeare's metrical art which have been used as tests of the relative order of composition of the several plays. Many writers on the metrical tests as applied to this problem weaken the effect of their deductions by an unjustifiable assumption of minute certainty in application; and of finality for their own conclusions. Mr. Chambers remarks that "the operation of all the verse-tests is restricted by certain rules based on common sense." He states frankly that he has been disappointed in his expectation that he should find the *enjambement* test conclusive as chronological evidence. He considers the "weak-ending test" by all odds the most important piece of metrical testimony as to the date of 'Macbeth.' He does not, with most critics, posit a continuous bettering of the poet's metrical genius to the end, but holds that in the versification of his last plays "long familiarity leads him at times to abuse his liberty, and to write measured prose for verse," and that perhaps "the return to Stratford cast upon Shakspeare the weight of too much liberty." Rather pretty are the fanciful catchwords Mr. Chambers uses for Shakspeare's four periods. "I., The Vanity of Rime. II., The Balance of Power. III., The Discordant Weight of Thought. IV., The License of Weak Endings." The little book is to be recommended as written with judgment and restraint. It seems to help clear up the problems with which it deals. It lacks an index.

In the preface to his 'Pattern Design' (London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) Mr. Lewis F. Day states that he has prepared this handbook to replace his former work, 'The Anatomy of Patterns,' which had gone through four editions. The times have changed, he says, "and with them the standpoint of students and teachers of design; and though my point of view has not altered, my outlook has widened with experience." The illustrations are either wholly new or are remade with care, the larger page allowing of better cuts, even of clearer and more effective diagrams. And if it were a question only of a good series of diaper patterns, sowings or *semé* patterns, scroll pat-

terns, waves and frets and spots, foliation and floriation, then the book might be recommended without a second thought, so excellent is the selection of ornament and so clever its presentation. Even the so-called "diagrams" are often of use in furnishing ready-made material. Thus, on page 190, the filling of a narrow upright panel with Renaissance scrollwork and arabesque, exactly as on the front of so many pilasters of the fifteenth century, is so treated that the student can see the development in the mind of the designer from the obvious to the more elaborate treatment. In fact, these "diagrams" serve the same purpose as is served by the excellent photographic picture of a composition in "six-inch tile design to be fixed brickwise"—that is to say, with breaking of joints. As to Mr. Day's avowed purpose to explain how designing is done, the man who will read this book through and note down its assertions and demonstrations with the idea that he is "learning design" will be far astray.

Sadakichi Hartmann has published through L. C. Page & Co., Boston, a little volume on Japanese Art, which is well worthy of careful reading by every one concerned in the study of fine art anywhere, or in the special collecting and comparison of Oriental treasures. It contains 280 pages, and about thirty full-page plates, some in colors, not always well made or quite faultless in reproduction, but extremely well chosen, and hardly ever failing to explain the text, thus serving the true purpose of illustrations. As for the text itself, it is the work of a very careful student, of one who does not make statements rashly or without immediate significance. The first half of the book is devoted to paintings alone, and this study is divided into four chapters, respectively entitled "Early Religious Paintings," "The Feudal Period," "The Renaissance," and "The Realistic Movement." There is one chapter devoted to architecture and sculpture, and one to the ornamental arts, while chapters five and eight deal with the interdependence of Oriental and Western civilization as seen under different lights. That Japanese art pervades all classes of the community, that its monuments are of approximately equal importance, whether small, cheap, slight and perishable, or permanent works of bronze or of architecture on a large scale, is the essential thing which the author never loses sight of for a moment. What he says of European art in comparison with Japanese is not always to be commended—for example, such a phrase as "ladies of fascinating leanness and awkwardness à la Chavannes," or the statement that he is "convinced that the pre-Raphaelites have borrowed their method of perspective . . . from the Japanese." To push this comparison still further, and to say that the paintings of Burne-Jones strangely resemble certain Japanese compositions which the author mentions, is to make a fantastical comparison. As for Japanese art, however, we have it well explained to us, and its artistic glory very intelligently set forth in this delightful little volume.

The "Transfer Tax Law" of New York State is the subject of a conveniently arranged volume of some three hundred pages by Samuel T. Carter, jr. (The Banks Law Publishing Co.). The subject is one

of growing importance, as the taxation of inheritances and transfers made in contemplation of death has now become part of the settled policy of many States; it has only been by unusual vigilance that we have thus far escaped a progressive transfer tax. With the law as administered we believe the public has been well enough satisfied, except as to one point. It is held, not only by State courts, but by the United States Supreme Court, that the law applies to United States bonds, which are, however, specially exempted by law from all taxation. The reasoning by which this conclusion is supported is that the tax is laid, not on the bonds, but on the right to inherit the bonds. Some lawyers—and many laymen—still profess to be unable to see the distinction.

Our minister to Cuba gives the most practical information to be found in the much-enlarged Consular Reports for January. It consists in notes upon the commerce, leading industries, and business firms of nine of the cities of the island, with a special list of one hundred and fifty-eight dealers in groceries and produce. The general outlook, on the whole, is hopeful. "There is a magnificent business to be developed between the United States and Cuba." Numerous reports treat of the foreign and colonial trade of Great Britain and the industrial conditions of Germany. Among the signs of returning prosperity in the empire is "the noticeable decrease of unemployed men on the streets and at the employment bureaus in Berlin." The book industry, however, is suffering from overproduction. "The vast majority of the 25,000 new books catalogued during 1902 proved to be a drug on the market." Through the ruinous competition, in the cities of the department store, and in the small towns of the bookbinder, the retail bookstore is passing out of existence.

The propaganda in the German University centres of the "Akademischer Schutzverein," which is a defensive alliance of the book producers and writers against the financial injustice of the new bookdealers' "union" recently organized by the "Sortimenter," or retail bookdealers, is growing. A branch of the society has recently been organized in Berlin. The main speaker in favor of the movement was Professor Paulsen, while the opposition was led by Dietz, Engelmann, and Schmoller. Marked opposition has appeared only in Jena, Strassburg, and Heidelberg, but in these universities two associate societies have been established. The bookdealers themselves have so far been making only a weak defence.

Petermann's *Mitteilungen*, number eleven, contains a topographical description of the Samoan Islands, by Dr. Reinecke, together with some account of their flora. His main conclusion from the study of the vegetation is that it is of relatively recent growth; that it has no connection with the flora of South America or Australia, but is of Indo-Malay origin. Dr. Saad gives some interesting facts in regard to twenty-three Jewish colonies in Syria and Palestine. The most flourishing is near Jaffa, and each of its seventy families has a house with a vegetable and flower garden, a horse and wagon, as well as a cow and fowls. The principal industry is grape culture and the manufacture of various wines, to which is now being added the

growing of olives and almonds. In the closing chapters of "Two Years among the Chukchis," a burial feast and other ceremonies connected with the disposal of their dead are described, and some facts are given relating to the commerce of the coast tribes with Alaska.

The Prussian Government has just published the statistics of the students who in the past fifteen years have, during their university career, changed from one faculty to another—a process known as "Umsatzen." The number is unexpectedly large, averaging for each semester 8.35 per cent. of the whole student body. As a rule, the change in the choice of professions is made in the second or third semester, although it occurs as late as the sixth, seventh, and eighth. The largest gains from this source are credited to the medical faculty, the new recruits coming chiefly from the philosophical and the law departments, and the percentage of increase being 11.46. Rather strangely the Catholic theological is next in attracting students from other faculties, its percentage of gain being 9.34. The smallest number from this source is secured by the Protestant theological faculty, only 4.12 per cent. of its students coming from other departments, the bulk from the faculty of philosophy, and about one-fourth from that of law.

The refusal of the Austrian Government to establish a distinctively Italian university has been met by the organization of "free Italian university lectures," recently begun in Innsbruck. They were opened by Professor Gubernatis of Rome, who delivered a course on Petrarch. Rioting between the German and the Italian students gave the authorities a pretext for temporarily putting a stop to these lectures, which, however, are to be taken up at a more auspicious season. The Salzburg University lecture course, inaugurated during the past fall and directed against a specifically "Catholic" science, are to be continued in 1904, with additional lectures on the natural sciences.

By the purchase of the *Fliegende Blätter*, the famous Munich comic weekly, and its transfer to Berlin by the newspaper publisher August Scherl, the newspaper war that has been carried on for a dozen years between this modern millionaire and the old and equally rich house of Rudolf Mosse, has entered upon a new stage. Scherl, who was at one time in the employ of the Mosse concern, has in the last few years acquired no fewer than seven of the most popular periodicals in Germany, and now issues them all from Berlin, aiming particularly at undermining the advertising business of the Mosse house, and has already compelled the latter to discontinue its once famous 'Berliner Adressbuch' by outrivalling it.

—Mr. Howard Kemble Stokes issues in separate form an essay on 'Chartered Banking in Rhode Island, 1791-1900,' prepared for 'Rhode Island and the Providence Plantations at the End of the Century' (Mason Company). As a colony, Rhode Island had acquired an evil reputation in public finance, and the reputation clung to it, with some reason, after it had become a State. Mr. Stokes takes up the story with the chartering of the Providence Bank, and tells in brief the experiences of banking in the State under the different eco-

nomic influences that controlled its operations. Commerce was the most potent force before the embargo, and agriculture (always apparently ready to borrow and somewhat lax in its ideas of repayment) served as a good second, demanding the creation of "capital" for its particular use. After the embargo and the War of 1812, manufacturing industries took the place of commerce, and, as Mr. Stokes says, levied tribute on the rest of the country to a degree that made the banks of Rhode Island particularly strong. The free bank yields to the bank under State supervision, and the peculiar "bank process" is abolished. Since that transition period the growth of manufactures and the rise of corporations have introduced new methods into banking and the use of credit. In some respects the experience of the Rhode Island banks has been peculiar, and the exceptional situations or influences are well described by Mr. Stokes, who shows great familiarity with his subject and a good knowledge of banking principles.

—It is characteristic of the zealous astronomer that he avails himself of every opportunity to advance his knowledge of things celestial, even under circumstances where no effort of the kind would be expected. Two or three years ago Prof. W. H. Pickering headed an astronomical expedition to Jamaica, and, while there, employed his photographic telescope in taking a number of photographs of the moon, though this was not his main object. These are now published by Doubleday, Page & Co. in a fine quarto volume, with text describing the principal features of lunar scenery. We might lay the book aside with the simple remark that the general reader can here find several complete sets of views of the lunar surface which have the advantage over hand drawings of the accuracy in detail secured by photography. But a statement printed on the wrapper of the book, for which we cannot suppose the author to be responsible, that these are "the most complete and valuable series of moon photographs ever secured," so far transcends the limits both of fact and of credibility that it would seem hardly necessary to warn the reader against accepting it. The pictures vary widely in quality, an unavoidable result of the necessity of taking them in very different states of the atmosphere; but the best are below those taken at the Lick Observatory, not to mention the Paris and other observatories. The drawback under which they labored is partially compensated by there being half a dozen pictures of each portion of the moon, taken under various conditions of illumination by the sun. Round or square pictures, had they been possible, would have been much more satisfactory than the long strips, each more than twice as high as wide, into which the lunar surface is divided. The index maps with alphabetical list of lunar features are well arranged, but we are sorry to see the names of living people put on the moon, seemingly on the author's own responsibility. There is in the text much discussion to which the conservative astronomer would object as being in the nature of unverified speculation—that pertaining to the supposed existence of snow and ice on the moon, for example.

—Mr. and Mrs. Sidney Webb hope to publish before the end of the present year the

results of their six years' investigation into the development of English local government between 1700 and 1835. Meanwhile they have issued, for the sake of its immediate practical value, that section which deals with 'The History of Liquor Licensing in England' (Longmans, Green & Co.). This little volume raises high anticipations of the importance of the completed work. The authors have not contented themselves with transcribing the changes in the statute-book, but, by the aid of all kinds of contemporary sources—especially the British Museum collection of provincial newspapers which it was recently proposed to disperse—have described the various local institutions, in structure and function, as vital social tissue. The account here given of the relation of these institutions to the liquor traffic is undoubtedly fuller and more exact than any previously published. Mr. and Mrs. Webb call particular attention to a remarkable episode which seems to have been overlooked by all students of the subject, and which has not been cited by any Parliamentary inquiry from 1817 to 1900—a reform movement beginning with a drastic restriction of licenses in 1786, and including, without compensation to publicans, many measures which are generally discussed to-day as modern and somewhat Utopian devices. Before they made this discovery, the authors had already noted, from their researches into the history of crime, a "lull" in disorderly conduct, rioting, etc., during the period when these acts were in force, and they infer that the advance of the English workingman during the first two decades of the nineteenth century was largely due to the limitation of the opportunities for drinking. They analyze, with much acuteness, the conditions which caused the abandonment of this restrictive policy in spite of the testimony of the country justices of the peace to its "distinct success." The detailed history ends with the Beer Act of 1830, but a chapter is appended recording in outline the attempts at "legislative repentance" since that date. In conclusion, the writers note—without attempting at present to draw any inferences from the fact—that whereas in the middle of the nineteenth century the tendency was to make the regulation of the liquor traffic part of the national administration, as are the Factories and Workshop Acts, the tendency of the last quarter of a century has been to restore it to the sphere of local government.

—'After Worcester Fight,' by Mr. Allan Fea (Lane), is a companion volume to the same author's 'Flight of the King.' In it are brought together the chief contemporary narratives which describe the escape of Charles II. from the field where Cromwell won his final victory. We shall employ a more familiar expression when we say that Mr. Fea has reprinted the Boscobel Tracts, with the sole exception of the 'Prisoner of Chester's Letter.' This collection embraces five items—the narrative which Charles II. dictated to Pepys in 1680, Thomas Blount's 'Boscobel,' 'Mr. Whitgreave's Narrative,' 'Captain Ellesdon's Letter to Lord Chancellor Clarendon,' and the 'Clastrum Regale Reseratum, or the King's Concealment at Trent.' Boscobel, it will be remembered, is the name of the place where Charles hid in the oak, and this whole body of literature goes back to the pamphlet which was published under

Blount's name within a few months from the Restoration. The singular fact is that Blount, a Roman Catholic lawyer of the Inner Temple, denied the authorship both in conversation with Lord Oxford and in a letter to his own son. By whatever author, 'Boscobel' ranks among the famous tracts of English history, describing as it does one of the most romantic adventures of the adventurous Stuarts. The loyalty of the Roman Catholic gentry after Worcester is quite comparable with that of the Highlanders after Culloden, although there was no reward of £30,000 on King Charles's head. Like 'The Flight of the King,' this volume is profusely illustrated, and Mr. Fea has added many notes of antiquarian interest.

—One of Charles II.'s companions at Worcester and in the first days of the flight was George Villiers, second Duke of Buckingham, a sketch of whose life by Lady Burghclere is published at the same moment with Mr. Fea's reprint of 'Boscobel' (Dutton). The Merry Monarch and the mercurial Duke had many tastes in common, and both were gifted with a cleverness which might easily have been turned to better uses. Of the two the King possessed the greater stability, and proved the more successful in the conduct of his own affairs; but this statement would apply with equal force to any Englishman of the Duke's generation. The name of George Villiers stands for all that is brilliant, reckless, unstable, and unfortunate. Dryden's character of Zimri, and Pope's description of the squalid death-bed, have left an impression which can never be effaced, and which is historically sound. Lady Burghclere, at least, does little to modify it when she says: "It would seem that at his birth the presiding genius sought to show how futile are all the gifts of intellect and person, if that great quality which Englishmen worship as 'character' be lacking." We shall not pause, however, to moralize upon the lessons of Buckingham's life, or to illustrate the richness of the talents which he scattered to the winds. Lady Burghclere's biography has the merit of drawing its materials from original sources, and is unmarred by the attempt to rehabilitate. "The one selfless aspiration to which through a thousand changes he remained true; was universal Liberty of Conscience." This is not an extravagant claim on behalf of one's subject, especially when it is so well grounded as in the case of Buckingham. Baxter seems willing to go equally far when he observes that though "George Villiers was of no religion, but notoriously and professedly lustful, yet he was of greater wits and parts and sounder principles as to the interest of humanity and common good than most lords in the court." Buckingham's political career, or that part of it which belongs to the larger issues of English history, begins at the Restoration and ends in 1679. Lady Burghclere has written a very good account of his relations with Arlington and the King, but when she reaches the period of the Popish Plot her grasp of events seems somewhat less firm. While recognizing that, after his disgrace, Buckingham exerted "far greater influence in his new character as leader of the Opposition than he had ever achieved as Prime Minister," she does not develop this striking part of his career with sufficient minuteness. Her account of the *Rehearsal* is also marked by some signs of

haste. These slight strictures made, we must state that Lady Burghclere has shown skill in her treatment of an intricate and singular personality.

—An interesting paper on changes in the sea-level, particularly on the shores of Greece, is published in a recent number of the *Revue Universelle des Mines* by Ph. Negrin, one of the first Greek geologists of our day, and formerly Greek Minister of Finance. He had shown in a previous work that, at the close of the glacial period, the sea about Greece stood about 600 feet higher in relation to the land than at present, and that its recession was by leaps and bounds. In the present article he shows what had been believed for some time, that during the last 2,000 years the sea has again gained upon the land, having risen about six feet. On the basis of observations made at the time of the recent excavations and dredging for the canal between Leucas and Acarnania, he concludes that when the earlier canal was dug by the Corinthians, 2,500 years ago, the surface of the sea was about nine feet lower than at present. At the depth of fifteen or eighteen feet he found indications of the lowest level of the surface of the Mediterranean at that place, and infers that the rising of the sea level began between 4,000 and 5,000 years ago. The difference in level, together with the wearing away of the rocks, is made by him to explain certain discrepancies between observed facts of today and statements of the geographer Strabo. For example, Negrin believes the Strait of Salamis to have been essentially narrower at the time of the naval battle, 480 B. C., than now, and explains the difficulty in the identification of certain islands mentioned by Herodotus and Strabo by the gradual disappearance of these islands. Negrin sets the separation of Ægina from the mainland at about 4,500 years ago, and believes that the Bay of Thera was formed and the Lake Tritonis disappeared at the time of the same "tectonic phenomenon" when the recession of the sea ceased. He believes the ancient Greek traditions of great floods to have been based on the facts of that time, and even thinks that Plato's story in the "Timæus" about great droughts in which the River Nile saved the human race, may have an historical foundation. These later views remind us of the English philologist Paley, who died not many years ago, and who explained certain Pindaric passages by assuming the persistence of a tradition of a glacial period in Peloponnesus and of icebergs at the mouth of the Black Sea; but Paley's views were supported by no expert evidence, and doubtless Negrin would regard the traditions as less certain than his geological inferences.

RECENT POETRY.

The faculty that is most clearly seen in Josephine Daskam's (Mrs. Bacon's) volume of 'Poems' (Scribners) is the extremely clever manipulation of poetic diction. At times, as in this stanza from "The Sons of Sleep," we have an effect of great felicity, which, without the cadence, has almost the verbal accent of a classic similitude:

"Like dropping of the sweet and gradual rain,
Full-flooding all the parched doors of growth,
The multitudinous lips of all the flowers,
The whispering insistence of dry leaves,
All cool and rill-like flowing falls our sleep."

At other times, more frequent, the use of poetic diction stiffens into mannerism. Words are used as counters, and fail to impress us with a sense of their living rightness. This is especially true of the more ambitious pieces where it goes along with many lapses into humid sentiment. One thing Mrs. Bacon does well, namely, to intimate by melody and image—much as Mr. James Whitcomb Riley used to do it—the glamour that envelops this dusty world in the eyes of a child. We like "The Sleepy Song" best of all her verses:

"As soon as the fire burns red and low
And the house upstairs is still,
She sings me a queer little sleepy song,
Of sheep that go over the hill.

"The good little sheep run quick and soft,
Their colors are gray and white;
They follow their leader nose to tail,
For they must be home by night.

"And one slips over, and one comes next,
And one runs after behind;
The gray one's nose at the white one's tail,
The top of the hill they find.

"And when they get to the top of the hill
They quietly slip away,
But one runs over and one comes next—
Their colors are white and gray.

"And over they go, and over they go,
And over the top of the hill
The good little sheep run quick and soft,
And the house upstairs is still.

"And one slips over and one comes next,
The good little, gray little sheep!
I watch how the fire burns red and low,
And she says that I fall asleep."

Mr. Riley, in his latest volume, 'His Pa's Romance' (Bobbs-Merrill Co.), exhibits the persistence of his old style, but something of the old unction has departed. It lingers, however, in a single stanza of "Twilight Stories," with its gracious Wordsworthian reminiscence:

"The Grandma Twilight Stories!—Still,
A childish listener, I hear
The katydid and whippoorwill,
In deepening atmosphere
Of velvet dusk, blent with the low
Soft music of the voice that sings
And tells me tales of long ago
And old enchanted things.

His sentimental poems have not altogether lost their appeal to the popular taste, but they too often fail to ring true, and they are vulgarized by pictures of bachelors of various ages dreaming of their Dulcineas, while seated in the conventional Morris chair of commerce. The humorous poems, too, fail in gusto, though once, in the account of a hungry little boy with

"His ever-ravenous, marauding eye
Fore-eating everything from soup to pie,"

there is a flash of the old laughter. The best things in the volume are the elegiac poems, wherein sincere and tender sentiments are expressed in Mr. Riley's musical, allusive verse, with a becoming sincerity nowhere better than in these stanzas from "The Paths of Peace," a memorial poem on the death of Maurice Thompson:

"Perchance—with subtler senses than our own
And love exceeding ours—he listens thus
To ever nearer, clearer pipings blown
From out the lost lands of Theocritus;

"Or haply he is beckoned from us here
By knight or yeoman of the bosky wood,
Or, chained in roses, hailed a prisoner
Before the blithe immortal, Robin Hood.

"Or, mayhap, Chaucer signals, and with him
And his rare fellows he goes pilgriming;
Or Walton signs him, o'er the morning brim
Of misty waters midst the daisies of Spring."

William Reed Huntington's 'Sonnets and a Dream' (Whittaker), after a lapse of five years, has just been reprinted with "additional poems." Dr. Huntington's verse is a by-product from the intellectual work of a scholarly and talented man. The characteristic poetic temperament, with its perturbations, is not

largely discernible in his writing, but the mental clarity, the restrained fervor of a perfectly integrated personality, expressed in suave and dignified English verse, make his sonnets upon modern religious moods and upon the issues of affairs excellent specimens of their kind. Among the additional poems there are a few with the finer flavor of poesy. The most memorable piece in the book is one of these, entitled "Midnight on Mansfield Mountain." It is more academic than Dr. Huntington's poems usually are; indeed, it might have been styled as appropriately, "Lines Written after Reading Matthew Arnold"; yet it has the impressiveness of a mood common among educated persons of sensibility, perfectly realized on an American mountain-side, and firmly and sweetly expressed. We give it here without its first stanza of worn classical allusions; for Dr. Huntington shares the curiously widespread inability of contemporary poets to understand how much the part may be greater than the whole:

"The breeze had died at set of sun,
Deep calm clad all things, flower and star,
Through the dim mists across Champlain
The sleeping mountains loomed afar.
Oh! why not to the soul of man
At such an hour come calm and peace?
Why breathes there not a voice to bid
The restlessness within him cease?"

"I know not; only this I know:
A gloom around the heart is curled
Wherever, more than is our wont,
We feel the mystery of the world,
The smouldering of the sunset sky,
The break of waters on the beach,
The murmur of the woods at noon,—
An untold sadness lurks in each.

"We feel because we cannot feel;
We know our helplessness to know;
We ask, but answer cometh not,
Is Nature friend to us, or foe?
O Mother, fair as thou art sad,
O Mother, sad as thou art fair,
Lift the dark curtain's corner once
And show us what thou hidest there!

There was a time when the bland declination of the publisher protected the reviewer of poetry, in some measure, against the assaults of worse than mediocrity. But now that we have a publisher filled with an earnest desire to publish—for a suitable sum in hand—anybody's poetry, however bad, the reviewer's case is indeed parlous. Most of the meagre volumes which have recently been put forth with Mr. Badger's imprint (*nomen est omen*) it is kinder to leave nameless. In view of the glowing "Foreword" wherewith she is introduced, we may select the Muse of Dr. William J. Fischer to acquaint us with the quality of this interesting company. "The poems of William J. Fischer," says Mr. Charles J. O'Malley, "reveal that a new man is about to arrive in the field of American letters." "His voice is a young, glad voice, yet full of power and originality." "Here are songs of nature and songs of home. There are love songs and heart songs and cradle songs, and songs of gladness, and songs of pain." No injustice is done this glad voice in choosing for quotation these lines "To Collette," which we rather take to be one of the heart songs:

"Red are the roses she wears in her cheek,
Red are the soft lips, that gladly enclose
White, pearly teeth—the pure portals of prayer—
Through which her white soul's expression sweet flows.

"Bright is the angel-look in her dear face,
Happy is the sunshine gay in her eyes mild—
O, there is nothing in all the wide world
Like the pure innocent heart of a child!"

There are many commendable sentiments expressed in Dr. Fischer's book, but this offering, with its engaging insinuation that Collette prayed through her teeth, is a perfectly fair specimen of his poetic attain-

ment. If any unappreciated poet has \$250 which he can comfortably spare for the pleasure of appearing in this company, of seeing his moods precipitated in print, and of distributing fifty copies of his achievement among his friends and cousins, no one has any right to protest.

To pass from the consideration of books of verse to the perusal of blank verse dramas, Mr. Harold Elsdale Goad's "The Blind Prophet" (Rivingtons) is a lyrical drama of the Shelleyan sort. To a partial reader, it will seem a misty composition with a background of intense inanity. It has not a little of the prismatic quality of Shelley's "Prometheus Unbound," whereby the light of the poet's thinking is broken into profuse imagery as if by a dome of many-colored glass. Yet its imperfectly articulated and casual action, its high-flown lyrics and long declamations, are informed by an effective central motive. This is nothing less than the attempt to show how a religion of charity and idealism may prevail at the end over both skepticism and bigotry. In many detached lines such as

"God in all life draws nearer to himself,"

Mr. Goad is very happy in phrasing certain perennial religious conceptions with a turn that is punctually of the hour. It is perhaps on such philosophic, rather than æsthetic, grounds that "The Blind Prophet" is most interesting. Yet we hesitate to apply rigorous æsthetic tests to so thoughtful and fervid a performance, for there is justice in the adjuration of Mr. Goad's prophet to a band of flower-gathering children:

"Scatter your dreams like flowers upon Life's way,
Woe to the man that treads them under foot."

Mr. Goad's lyrical interludes and choruses have an excellent rhythm, but their pinion is too often weighted with unpoetic phrase. His best poetic gift is for narrative blank verse, as may be seen in this brief extract, which, with all its Tennysonian color and cadence, is from a passage that moves the imagination.

"For as we marched in twilight o'er the hills,
With song exultant and great hope at heart,
Sudden we faced the sunrise o'er a ridge,
And there before us on the opposing slope
Stood the wild nations ready, and between
Gloomed a bleak, lonely valley brimmed with mist.
Best had we waited, steadfast on the slope,
Ay, for the foe were many, we were few;
But so the Queen had stired she could not stay,
And sudden, with one cry from all the host,
As though the sluices of our souls had burst,
We plunged into the twilight of that vale."

The collective title of Miss Harriet Monroe's book of plays, "The Passing Show" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), fails to suggest quite the serious nature of the experiments which it contains. Since the success of her sonorous Columbian Ode ten years ago, Miss Monroe has displayed a poetic reticence which is amply justified in these five modern plays in verse. All the plays are tragic, or, at least, sombrely involved with the problems of free character caught in that intricate web of social and biologic necessity which is the modern equivalent of the simpler Fate of the Greeks. To say this is to say that the vista of the world which opens through Miss Monroe's plays is very similar to that which is seen in Sudermann and his school. Yet the mood of the Germans is not imitated, but realized, and the effect of the dialogue, broken into blank of an excellent cadence and savor, is very different from theirs. Of the interest and suggestiveness of "The Passing Show" there is no question. The critical problem is to determine whether

er verse is the most suitable medium of expression for this particular kind of dramatic composition. If there is no legitimate effect in the plays as they stand which might not have been accomplished as readily and successfully in prose, then the medium is æsthetically unfit. The most ambitious attempt in the volume is the initial play, "The Thunderstorm." For purposes of stage presentation before a contemporary audience its story could doubtless be exhibited as effectively in prose, but, for the closeted reader, verse is indispensable to the fullest effect. There is a fine dramatic élan in Miss Monroe's writing which consorts well with her very respectable dramatic faculty.

A third intelligent essay in the field of dramatic poetry is Mr. Cale Young Rice's "Charles di Tocca" (McClure). Mr. Rice's theme and setting are quite remote enough to meet the old canons of the tragic. The protagonist is a petty tyrant of the Renaissance, and the scene is laid at his castle. Back of the castle are moonlit groves where the earlier action passes amid the ruins of old temples; and the crucial scene takes place in a hall which looks out upon the sea lying bloody in the sunset. Mr. Rice's versification is too often awkward, but this fault is in part redeemed by his phrase, which, despite some Elizabethan tincture, is more fresh and living than is often found in closet drama. Mr. Rice has also taken more advantage than is usual with modern writers of plays in verse, of the rich opportunities of strict dramatic structure. The action of the piece is admirably compact and coherent, and it contains some tragic situations and reversals which will afford pleasure, both to the student of the carpentry of play-writing and to the untechnical reader.

The most astonishing performance in the way of dramatic poetry that has lately been seen is Prof. N. S. Shaler's "Elizabeth of England" (Houghton), a "dramatic romance" in five volumes, a play to a volume. In these five plays, "The Coronation," "The Rival Queens," "Armada Days," "The Death of Essex," and "The Passing of the Queen," Mr. Shaler has attempted to compass all the spacious times of great Elizabeth. It does not seem necessary to take very seriously Mr. Shaler's modest and ingenious preface, wherein he sets forth that these plays were written to vindicate scientific pursuits against the charge that they tend to sap the poetic imagination. He chooses as his text Darwin's confession that in middle life he ceased to care for imaginative poetry; but this has only slight evidential value, for a similar confession could doubtless be extorted from any nine out of ten men of middle age. In any case Mr. Shaler was a self-confessed versifier in youth, and from the perusal of his scientific and philosophic writings we take him to have been beneath the geologic crust a subterranean poet all his days. This assumption is fully borne out by the quality of the present work. A touch of this quality may be felt in the speech of Elizabeth to Raleigh after the destruction of the Armada, and in his reply:

Eliz.
Welcome, my prophet, you who see afar,
And judge the destinations of our ways;
Whose sword is also sceptre, pointing men
To empires to be won in days to come.
You see in action more than action means
To most hard fighters. Tell me what you saw
In the great arc that overarched the storm,
What rainbow gold to lead us worlds away.

'Tis much to have a knight who poet is,
And yet a poet with good sense of gain.

Raleigh.

My Queen, I looked as all did,—first to you,
And past you to this realm. When swords are out
Men watch their points; but when the fight is o'er
Then come the vistas.

Think of that realm which waits us past the sea,—
Another England stretched from Pole to Pole.
'Tis yours to take; it is not yours to leave."

The five ample plays are written throughout in this large, unlabored vein, and there is scarcely a dull or a nerveless line to be found. Nevertheless, through the first two volumes the reader is dogged by the sense of dulness. The surface is taking, but the creative impulse has not been sufficient to vitalize the organism. From "Armada Days" onward, however, there is a constant increase of pleasure of an essentially poetic kind. No one of the plays is in any strict sense dramatic, though the "Death of Essex" comes nearest to being a tragedy of character. Mr. Shaler has, rather unhistorically, conceived Essex, as a reckless idealist, one who

"... never took the measure of his time
Or gauged the seas whereon his craft might swim.
But chanced their deeps and shallows with a helm
Set straight to far-off goal."

But the play fails of full tragic impressiveness in that it does not contain the proper *scènes à faire*. The more disastrous actions in which the tragic fault in Essex's character issues are recounted in vigorous narrative, not dramatically exhibited. On the other hand, the structural principle of the dramatic romance as a whole is poetic and effective. It is the conception of Elizabeth as the incarnation of the English national ideal, undergoing, after the dissipation of the Armada, a subtle sea-change into the fountain and origin of English imperialism. In elaborating this theme, Mr. Shaler has chosen to credit the Queen with more womanly affection than has appeared in the dry light of history. But his plays gain in pathos by this, and it may well be that here again poetry is a truer and more philosophical thing than history. The final picture of the melancholy weeks which preceded the passing of the Queen, full of the same sombre mood towards "the deep" which informed the author's "Study of Life and Death," is excellently well done; and the introduction of "A Player," who supports her along her shadowy path with the stay of mellow Shakspearean wisdom, is fine literary art. The best things in the five volumes are some of the long narrative speeches, in which great events are recounted with the vividness of a writer well furnished with memories of men and heroic deeds, and quite poetized by an under-running spiritual sense of life, articulate in phrase and rhythm. Indeed, we should be glad to see Professor Shaler try his hand at the neglected trade of narrative poetry. That the dramatic form is not necessary to the poetic chronicler admirably appears in Carducci's experiment—a mere fragment, alas—"Il Parlamento."

ANGLO-IRISH FICTION AND CELTIC POETRY.

Irish Life in Irish Fiction: By Horatio Sheafe. Krams. New York: Macmillan. (The Columbia University Press.) 1903.

Poets and Dreamers: Studies and Translations from the Irish. By Lady Gregory. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903.

Now that Mr. Yeats has set us all talking

about Irish literature, and weighing the chances of the Celtic movement, we may remind ourselves what the phrase "Irish literature" conveys, or has till lately conveyed, to the Anglo-Saxon reader. Nothing could show more decisively the need of Mr. Yeats to clear the ground for the Celtic Renaissance than the fact that nine people out of ten, if you should ask them about Irish poetry, would think you meant Tom Moore; as for Irish prose, 'Charles O'Malley' and 'Rackrent Castle' are, of course, the classical literary expression of Irish life. Strange that a people should so misunderstand itself, should be so misunderstood, that the trivial Anacreontic verses of a sentimental cockney like Tom Moore have never really failed to pass muster as Irish. Nothing, we repeat, so convinces us that the Gaelic League has a genuine mission, and no easy triumphs before it, as this acceptance of Moore for the poet-laureate of the passionate and brooding Celt. But when you have convinced both Celt and Anglo-Saxon that

"Believe me if all those endearing young charms" does not express the lyrical emotion of a race of impassioned visionaries, you are still confronted with Lever and Miss Edgeworth and the author of 'Handy Andy.' We are told that Miss Edgeworth's novels inspired Scott to do for Scotland what she had done for Ireland; that her pictures of Irish life so impressed Turgeneff that he hastened to throw as vivid a searchlight on the life of the Russian peasant. Irish fiction does indeed begin with Miss Edgeworth, but you will find no revelation of the spirit of Ireland in those works which made her the lion of a London season. The popularity of Miss Edgeworth, like the popularity of Lever, was due to the fact that she presented with some vivacity and great precision the type of Irishman that regularly appeals to the British public. The openhanded, reckless heroes of Miss Edgeworth, the duelling, drunken squireens of Lever's extravaganzas, are no more Celtic than the roystering English squire of English fiction is Celtic. In all the Irish novels of the Lever type you are in the society of the Anglo-Irishman. The softness and amenity of the Irish air, the soft Irish weather, have worked a real change in the Anglo-Saxon settler; they have taken away his power of resistance, but they never could transform him into a Celt.

"To keep game-cocks, to hunt the fox,
To drink in punch the Solway,
With debts galore, but fun far more—
O, that's the man for Galway."

This is Anglicized Ireland playing the buffoon to amuse an English audience; you must turn to a very different literature if you want to hear Ireland talking to herself.

Mr. Krans deals with the Irish novelists of the first half of the nineteenth century. In those days the life of Ireland, tempered always by English influences, centred in Dublin. The nobility and gentry were, as they are now, for the most part, Protestant, the peasantry, Catholic, clinging to their religion with the ardor that always results from the persecution of a faith. The lawless and overbearing landlord of English extraction, the avaricious factor, the rack-rented peasant, these were the surface of Irish life; the hilarity and pathos of the Lever school of fiction are derived only

from the surface. But in the meantime certain novelists of the peasantry were appealing to the same audience, though with very different success. They were all Catholic and all Celtic. There is nothing devil-may-care about the heroes of Carleton's or Banim's novels. There at least you meet the real peasant, who must learn to read and write by stealth or not at all; whose life was a series of evasions of the law, with eviction and emigration for the climax. Yet the dragoon of Lever still holds his ground among the dashing heroes of last century's fiction; the hedge-school-master requires a commentary. The wandering schoolmaster, who, because he was a Catholic, and a Catholic could not educate or be educated, must hide with his pupils under a hedge, played a prominent part in the novels of peasant life that were written from the inside, as Carleton's were written. This fiction never had any real life, and cannot be revived except for the purposes of the student of early Victorian novels; but for the creative genius among Irish novelists, one must look to Carleton rather than to Lever or Edgeworth.

In his essay of 335 pages, Mr. Krans makes an exhaustive survey of Irish fiction up to the middle of the last century. The volume is one of the Studies in Comparative Literature issued under the auspices of Columbia University. There is a good bibliography, and the review of the novels is well done. It is not the fault of Mr. Krans that no one who cares for Ireland to-day can take any interest in Lever and his school.

Even such men as Carleton and Banim, who are as much out of touch with this generation as Lever, had no aim that was peculiarly Irish. An English education, English ideals, for them meant the only chance of success. But about the time—that is, about sixty years ago—when these novels of Irish life were being written, for the English, the poet Raftery was writing Irish ballads for the peasants of Galway. It is a question whether Lever so much as heard of him; in any case he could not have read the ballads. For with the poets and dreamers who give the title to Lady Gregory's book, we arrive at last at the Irishman from whom the Englishman can extract neither humor nor pathos, whom he simply does not envisage, the passionate and visionary Celt.

When Lady Charlotte Guest collected and translated the Welsh legends, the prose romances of Wales, she threw a flood of light on Celtic literature, which before that had been hidden from all but students in Geoffrey of Monmouth's twelfth-century chronicle. It would be hard to estimate the influence of that translation, which revealed the Celtic saga to the world, as Lönnrot revealed the Finnish saga by his collection of the 'Kalevala'; the 'Mabinogion' is to Wales what the 'Song of Roland' is to France. Lady Gregory is in some ways more fortunate than Lady Charlotte Guest. The collection that she has made in this volume is not antiquarian; the Cuchullin Saga, one of the two great Celtic epics of Ireland, has long been familiar to English readers, though so far it has been mysteriously neglected by poets and artists. One of the best translations is by Lady Gregory herself, in an earlier volume. But the present studies are a manifesto, a contribution to a movement

that has caught the imagination and fired the pride of the whole Irish nation. When Matthew Arnold wrote his essay on Celtic literature, his aim was to justify the Celtic imagination by proving that there is a streak of the Celt in every Anglo-Saxon poet of genius; that the natural magic and mystery of some of the finest passages in English poetry are due to a strain of the Celt in the poet. But Arnold looked only to the past. He thought that an antiquarian revival would reinstate the Celt in the history of comparative literature, and that to found a chair of Celtic at Oxford would go far towards settling the Irish question. He would have been out of sympathy with the aims of Lady Gregory and Mr. Yeats, for he was too thorough an Anglo-Saxon to believe with Mr. Yeats and his friends that the Celt must isolate himself, must make of Ireland a sort of Sparta, must, if he is to be a true Celtic poet, draw his inspiration from the Celtic fountain alone. That is, of course, the ideal of a separatist, such as your true Irishman must always be; the Gaelic movement is a summons to patriotism—that patriotism which, as Mr. Godkin once said, depends so much on the stimulus that the country's history can supply to the imagination of its people. For all the purposes of poetry this isolation has been maintained by the wandering peasant poet who composes in Irish for an Irish peasant audience. What Lady Gregory does in this volume is to give the English reader a chance to estimate the poetic activity of the nineteenth-century Celt.

Raftery died about sixty years ago, but his songs are still sung in Mayo and Galway, Lady Gregory tells us, and exist in copies that were treasured by the country people. Lady Gregory found his famous poem in which he cursed a bush that failed to shelter him from the rain, "in a manuscript book, carefully written in the beautiful Irish character, and the great treasure of a stone-cutter's cottage." Raftery was a blind bard, whose songs were supposed to have a mysterious power to bring the fairies close, so that the mention of one's name in them was not by any means desirable. The passages that are quoted are, in fact, nearly all curses and satires. Like a true wandering rhapsode, he sometimes left a scathing verse on a place where he was not well treated, as, "Oranmore without merriment. A little town in scarce fields—a broken little town, with its back to the water, and with women that have no understanding." Every one will remember Shakspeare's rhymes on "Beggary Broom and drunken Bidford," which have stuck to those little Warwickshire villages as Raftery's satire sticks to Oranmore. But Raftery wrote historical poems too, and, in the days when Irish history was forbidden in the schools, his poems were the textbooks of the hedge schoolmasters. "The music of the world entirely, and Orpheus playing along with it, I'd sooner than all that the Sassenach to be cut down," sang Raftery. The Celtic movement needs a Tyrtæus, especially if it is going to encourage a Spartan isolation; there is a curious lack of the spirit-stirring note in these poets who would like the Sassenach to be rooted out. It is a great mistake to be a pathetic patriot. Raftery, at any rate, could strike as well as any Celt the note of lamentation. His elegy on his friend Daly is the best example. "The swans on the water are nine times blacker than a

in the Doctors' dissertations of the present day.

The strongest feature of his addresses, we think, is to be sought where undue bias against former methods or certain classes of studies cannot enter. We are especially pleased with his vigorous denunciation of the excesses and dishonesties of current college athletics. Better to close the gates of the Athletic Field for ten years, and fumigate, he thinks, than submit to the evils of the professional spirit and methods. His most positive suggestion for reform is to exact hard and successful work from those who would be on the teams. The "ringer" would soon fall by the wayside under that test. Indeed, if President Jordan were to come up to the full measure of his suggestions in managing the institution entrusted to his care, there would be one college in the land where the presence of the idler would not be tolerated either in athletics or in any other department. One can find no fault with him in the matter of strenuousness. The idea of college life as a withdrawal from the turmoil of the outer world, in order to a quiet contemplation of the things of the mind, is about as foreign to his way of thinking as anything could possibly be. It is somewhat unpleasant to deal with the address which gives his volume its title, "The Voice of the Scholar." The strength of its argument for scholastic freedom of speech is weakened in the end by reservations and qualifications which practically undo all the good words that precede them. One might sum it up by saying that the scholar who holds a position in the teaching force of a university must be free, but only to declare scientific truth, free from any admixture of error, partisanship, or other harmful ingredients. But who is to decide? Of course, the door is wide open here for the baleful influence of the actual or prospective donor, the partisan constituency, and various other foes to real freedom. Better the words of M. Croiset in his address on the Needs of the Democracy: "Il est contraire à l'essence de la science de fermer la bouche même à l'erreur." But the recent episode in the South shows that we are making progress, even if the presidents of two great universities have felt constrained, within recent years, to speak in halting tones on the subject. When we recollect how forcibly and frequently President Jordan has freed his mind concerning recent political follies, we can only be thankful that he has not imposed upon himself the restraints which his address suggests.

To recur to the addresses of our French educators, we imagine that most American readers will find in them a greater confidence in the power of "education" as a cure-all for the ills of democracy than is current among us, as a result of our own experience. We have found that all classes of our educational institutions, from the little red school-house to a Harvard or a Yale, may turn out citizens who are utterly careless of their duties and privileges as members of our democracy. We have seen uneducated men by the thousands arrayed on the side of financial sanity against an utterly fallacious and dangerous financial movement led by Bryan, a college graduate, and supported by prominent graduates of perhaps every college in the country. True, the rule is the other way; but our French cousins will fare better than we if they do

not find the exceptions so numerous and weighty as to inspire serious doubts of their thesis.

The Nemesis of Froude: A Rejoinder to James Anthony Froude's 'My Relations with Carlyle.' By Alexander Carlyle and Sir James Crichton-Browne. New York: John Lane. 1903.

This volume has perhaps attracted less public attention than any other of the Carlyle-Froude series, but it has merits and an interest of its own which should not be overlooked. It is a compact restatement of the case against Froude, as well as an entertaining rejoinder to the very disagreeable pamphlet called 'My Relations with Carlyle,' which Froude's representatives recently published. Of course the weak point in Froude's armor was inaccuracy. He had a constitutional tendency to be inexact and false. He seems to have had the most implicit confidence in his own recollection of facts, but, as it is put here, his memory was really an organ, not of retention and reproduction, but of transformation. We are not surprised to learn that curious illustrations of this are afforded by his posthumous account of his relations with Carlyle.

For instance, it was his object in that pamphlet to fix indelibly in the mind of the public the impression that he, as a disciple of Carlyle, must have been the last person to desire to misrepresent him. For this purpose he gives us an engaging picture of a youthful Froude in deacon's orders, looking to the Church as his profession, and suddenly detached from the pleasant, easy path by the warning voice of Carlyle. So much as a doubt of the truth of the creed in which he had been brought up had hitherto never crossed his mind.

"It was at this time that Carlyle's books came in my way. They produced on me what evangelicals call 'a conviction of sin.' . . . They taught me that the religion in which I had been reared was but one of many dresses in which spiritual truth had arrayed itself, and that the creed was not literally true, so far as it was a narrative of facts."

Do you think (the implication is) that I could malign him? Unfortunately, according to the authors of the present volume, this is a case of "transformation." It was in 1841 that Carlyle's books were first brought to Froude's notice by John Sterling, and it was not until 1844 that he took deacon's orders; so that he either took deacon's orders three years after his faith had been undermined by Carlyle (to say nothing of his having preached a funeral sermon in St. Mary's Church, Torquay, three years later still, in 1847), or else he is wholly wrong as to the startling effect of Carlyle's books on him in 1841. The fact appears to be that no such sudden conversion through Carlyle's books ever took place. The development of Froude's incredulity was gradual. But to make his relations with Carlyle what they needed to be for the immediate purpose, a sudden conversion was required. Memory, with the aid of imagination, became at once equal to the task.

An appendix contains a searching analysis of Sir James Stephen's vindication of Froude. But this vindication must be regarded rather as the defence of a friend than an impartial opinion. No doubt, for

any one who trusted Froude and placed reliance on his statements of facts, a very good case might be made out; his present critics have therefore laid most stress on his utter untrustworthiness, and to our mind, in this respect, they have broken him down completely. It is indeed his Nemesis which has overtaken him. Looking back on the whole controversy, it leaves a painful impression, which will probably deepen with time. Who comes out of it well?

How George Rogers Clark Won the Northwest, and Other Essays in Western History. By Reuben Gold Thwaites. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1903. Pp. xx., 378.

The precept, "Gather up the fragments, that nothing be lost," was never so honored in authors' observance as now. With the growth of Carnegie and other libraries present and prospective the demand for books has so grown that it welcomes bibliothecal supplies without hesitation—above all, when a taking title flares in the forehead, as in the case of the Essays before us. "How George Rogers Clark won the Northwest"—so much and no more is printed both on the back and side of a volume more than four-fifths of which has no reference at all to Clark or his exploit. But the Clark essay, though not the longest in the book, may well be proud of a facsimile now first published of Clark's summons of Vincennes to "surrender at discretion"—Grant's laconic model, which he varied only by translating an ambiguous and euphemistic French idiom into the unmistakable "unconditional." This summons was the Archimedean fulcrum for moving our trans-Alleghany world out of foreign control. No matter how black the blot on those nine facsimile lines, they are written, as Tom Moore would say, with a pencil of light which illumines a whole volume. They must survive as long as the facsimiles of our national Declaration.

Mr. Thwaites's pearls, though strung at random, make up a bead-roll of beginnings (1) of French missions and settlement on the Great Lakes, (2) of French expulsion from trans-Alleghania, (3) of lead mining, (4) of the Wisconsin agricultural stage, and (5) of the carving of five States out of the Northwest. No less than eleven maps illustrate as many projects for such carvings, which each had stout supporters before mutual delimitations were determined. These maps, crude as blackboard chalkings, are not least instructive. How many readers have not yet to learn that Chicago stands in a State that was to be named Assenisippia? How many know that Washington's intrenchments where he was forced to surrender in 1754 are still in fair preservation, and that current histories of them need corrections which they will now get from Mr. Thwaites's compass and line? Where but in these essays is such an exposure of the black part which the Black Hawk war played in our century of dishonor? Where else is there such a gathering of important data as well as dates regarding our early lead mining? Loving and almost filial are the details respecting Draper and his detecting as with wand of witch-hazel the manuscripts which proved the cornerstone of the State Historical Society, have given it a distinctive superiority to all Westerns of its class, and are now housed

in the most costly building in the United States known as an Historical Library.

A History of Arabic Literature. By Clément Huart, Secretary-Interpreter for Oriental Languages to the French Government, and Professor at the École des Langues Orientales in Paris. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1903. Pp. viii., 478.

L'Islamismo—Letteratura Araba. Del Dott. Prof. Italo Pizzi della R. Università di Torino. Milan: Urico Hoepli. 1903. Pp. viii., 496, and xii., 388.

We have already noticed in the French original M. Huart's sketch, which now appears as one of Mr. Edmund Gosse's "Short Histories of the Literatures of the World." In its English garb it calls for mention, but it cannot be said to compare favorably with the other volumes in that series. It has neither the brilliancy of Dr. Murray's "Greek Literature," the unique learning and research of Dr. Giles's "Chinese Literature" or Mr. Aston's "Japanese Literature," nor even the piquancy and originality of Mr. Fitzmaurice-Kelly's "Spanish Literature." As is true of so many recent compilations on Arabic subjects, the shadow of Brockelmann's great biblio-biographical farrago is heavy on it, and a wealth of half-digested detail mars the clarity of the presentation. M. Huart might well have borne in mind with Hesiod that the half is often greater than the whole. His book would have been more attractive and readable for the class to which it appeals, if he had sunk in oblivion the greater number of the authors whose names and works he here painfully recites. The student knows where to seek such information—is it not all written in the pages of Brockelmann, Wüstenfeld, and Ibn Khallikan?—and in this wilderness of names the unlearned reader will vainly long for some memorable and decisive generality. Of the translation, it is enough to say that no reader except the absolutely ignorant of French will ever prefer it to the original. Although it does not display flat errors, the turning of its phrases is loose, and it blunts and dulls that flash and sparkle with which good French can hardly fail to lighten any subject.

The little handbooks by Professor Pizzi are of a very different type. Belonging to the well-known 'Manueli Hoepli,' they, too, are cast in popular form, but their method is entirely other. Names and non-significant details are rigorously suppressed; everything given represents an idea, and a common idea—not simply an isolated fact, valueless except for its own sake. Further, the spirit of the Muslim institutions and of the Arabic literature is illuminated by a long and excellently selected and translated series of illustrative extracts. Too great praise cannot be bestowed on this side of Professor Pizzi's work; by the idea and its execution he has put life into a form of handbook too often stiff and sapless. Also, he has chosen these extracts—so different from the Elegant Extracts of our youth—from easily accessible chrestomathies and texts, and thus made his books of immediate usefulness to the beginner in Arabic.

Of his 'L'Islamismo' the scope is well given thus: "Noi intendiamo di studiar la vita musulmana, descrivendola brevemente, e le manifestazioni sue nelle lettere, nelle arti, nelle scienze, nelle opere

della cultura, nel costume, negli usi, anche nelle superstizioni e negli errori volgari, sì che, per noi, anche un motto, anche un fatto dappoco, anche un tratto qualunque del costume o dell' indole hanno valore assai maggiore che non le guerre e le battaglie, che non gli atti della politica" (p. 27). This has left him free to deal with literature in the narrower sense in his second book, and the two volumes together in their nine hundred compact little pages furnish a singularly complete introduction to the Muslim civilization as a whole.

The Study of Ecclesiastical History. By William Edward Collins, B.D. (Handbooks for the Clergy, edited by A. W. Robinson.) Longmans, Green & Co. 1903.

The significance of this little volume of 150 pages is not at all to be measured by its size. Although specially addressed to working clergymen of the Church of England, it cannot fail to be of value to all students of church history. We venture to use this phrase in spite of the author's insistence on the term "ecclesiastical history" as expressing a something larger than what men are accustomed to call church history. Just what this something is, we are not told; but we are led dangerously near the fantastic notion, by no means uncommon in clerical writers, that "The Church" means everything since Adam in which any resemblance to historical Christianity can be found. We do not think that Mr. Collins really shares this fancy, but rather that he is trying to avoid another error which he rightly believes to have had far more unfortunate results. He insists, from beginning to end of his book, that the Church cannot be studied as a series of phenomena isolated from the main currents of human experience. It is, we think, in this sense that he speaks of a "preparation" of the world for Christ, not in any one line of descent, but in the gradual and regular development of social forces, precisely as one might speak of a preparation for the Discovery of America or for the French Revolution. Yet our author nowhere leaves us in doubt that the importance of the "Incarnation," which he, as an English clergyman accepts, transcends infinitely that of any other crisis in human affairs.

From this intimate and essential relation of church history to all other history it should follow that its method can differ in no respect from that of all historical study, and it is the chief merit of this volume that it lays down this principle without hesitation and without limits. Whatever is good method in any other field of history is equally good in that of church history. Records and documents must be examined with an equally strenuous criticism; every assumption as to chances of human fault and error which the historian of politics would make about his material, must be made by the Church historian about his. Mr. Collins defends with considerable cleverness the claim of history to be a science, and goes on to show how the two sides of every scientific process, the analytical and the synthetical, are to be carried out. He pays his compliments to the historian with a purpose, and to the other, equally dangerous, who presents only a jumble of "facts," without such arrangement or comment as will make them

intelligible. His estimate of the argument from silence is judicious, but he curiously neglects to speak of the silence which is merely the taking for granted of things universally known to the author's world.

As to the process of study, Mr. Collins distinctly urges his readers to begin with an investigation in some relatively narrow field rather than with wide reading over the whole ground, but he reminds us in a note that he is speaking to clergymen, of whom a general knowledge of church history may be predicated. Let us hope he is right as to Englishmen; no such assumption could be made for American clergymen. It is refreshing to find an English churchman frankly placing Gibbon at the head of all English historians, and repeatedly commending him to his clerical readers, though at the same time warning them against his obvious tendencies. In the same vein is the disregard, even dislike, of "apologetic" writings, which our author rightly separates from truly historical works, giving them, however, their due place in a final estimate of values. We are glad, again, to find a man who is not afraid to commend old books while not neglecting new ones. It is rather a fine touch when Mr. Collins demands of new books that they shall have something of a prophetic character, bringing a real revelation of truth which shall make them the teachers of to-morrow. He means to contrast these with merely "up-to-date" books, which satisfy some momentary phase of the public thought without laying any foundations for a sounder judgment.

The most valuable chapter is the seventh, in which the author takes up certain special aspects of the study of church history, and gives directions as to how they are to be faced. These are generally eminently sound, as, e. g., when he applies to the study of the Canon Law the rule that "principles precede practices, and practices precede theory." We could only wish a little more certain sound in his rules for interpreting the records of the marvellous. On the one hand he seems a little over hard in relation to legends, for he would reject, not only the legend itself, but also all that goes with it, as invalidated by it. On the other hand, he is not quite equal to the strain of rejecting precisely the same kind of narrative when it falls naturally into the sober record of such a chronicler as Bede. He is ready to say that the marvels so recorded "may have had an objective reality." "They are as much a part of the life of the peoples concerned as their actions are, or their beliefs." Here Mr. Collins passes that line which so few clerical scholars have ever been able to observe. The marvel does not have an objective reality; it is not the marvel which is a part of the life of the peoples, but the belief-in-the-marvel, and the study of the marvellous is a study, not of history, but of psychology. When Mr. Collins goes on to say "that signs (*σημεία*) do occur nowadays is a matter of experience," only that most of us have not the eyes to read them, he is wandering still further into the range of psychology, and pathological psychology at that.

The notices of books are in the main useful, but too meagre to call for criticism. One or two slips should be corrected; as, p. 30, *Monumenta Historica Germanica* for *M. G. Historica*; p. 31, *Bullarium* for *Bullarium*, and *Münich*, which is neither English nor German.

America in the China Relief Expedition. By A. S. Daggett. Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.

It was well worth while to tell the story of the American soldier in China in 1900, and of the largest expedition ever dispatched by the United States to the Asian continent. The volume is neatly printed, with excellent maps, an index of names, and an appendix containing the more important official documents relating to the subject. The table of contents is very full; the illustrations make up in quantity what they lack in quality; the style is clear and straightforward, and the spirit expressed is eminently judicial. Although the author was a participant and eye-witness, as captain of infantry, and is now a Brigadier-General, retired, he does not mention names of the living in criticism, and rarely does he speak in direct praise. He does not hesitate, however, to point out the defects of our military system, especially such as can be easily remedied. For example, he wonders why such a large number of officers are so extolled in official dispatches and recommended to Congress for brevet, for he takes it for granted that a soldier should always be both brave and faithful. To recommend pretty much everybody in a fight for special honors on account of simple faithfulness to duty, defeats the very object supposed to be gained. He intimates that more cheap and cheaper reputations have been made in the last four years than ever before, and that in all wars with inferior and barbarous races this is likely to be so.

The work does not treat of what went on inside the Legation fortifications, but deals wholly with the movements of the American troops from the time of their receiving orders (when in the Philippines) until, their work being done, they left China. He shows that some of the patent machine guns were found worthless when put to prolonged use, and had to be abandoned or thrown into the river. He praises the spirit and conduct of the Japanese soldiers, but neither he nor any one else has yet enlightened us upon the question why the Japanese, with their superior force and equipment and thorough preparation, were not allowed to press on, immediately after the fall of Tientsin, to Peking, to the immediate rescue of the Legations.

Being a veteran, Gen. Daggett naturally passes just criticism upon those young and "fresh" officers who do not understand the physical possibilities or the temper and

spirit of the men on foot. Though he does not say so in so many words, he reveals pretty clearly why there are so many desertions from the United States army. His criticisms of the desire of inexperienced officers to get into action and under fire, and possibly to make cheap reputations quickly, have their illuminating commentary in the fact that, in not a few of the engagements, there was evidently more desire for a fight than knowledge of the ground or the circumstances, though the author never tells us, of course, just who has blundered. "The former [experienced officer], exercising self-restraint, looks to the interest of his Government; the latter [inexperienced officer], impulsive, excited, looks for personal glory; the former, his reputation for personal courage being secure, bends all his energies to the best means of gaining victory; the latter, having no reputation for personal courage, exerts all his energies to gain one." The thrilling episode of the scaling of the high walls by our troops without ladders, and the planting of the stars and stripes by the first of the rescuers on the walls of Peking, is modestly and vividly told (p. 147). Gen. Daggett considers some of the criticisms made on our soldiers by foreigners, and speaks with the authority of a man of experience. Indeed, one is constantly impressed, in reading this really valuable contribution to history, by the coolness and moderation of the judgments expressed, as well as by the accuracy of the facts stated.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anders, H. R. D. Shakspeare's Books. (Schriften der Deutschen Shakspeare-Gesellschaft, Band 1.) Berlin: Georg Reimer. Paper 7m.; cloth 8m.
Armstrong, A. C. Transitional Eras in Thought. The Macmillan Co. \$2.
Avebury, Lord. Essays and Addresses. The Macmillan Co. 7s. 6d. net.
Bateson, Mary. Medieval England. (Story of the Nations Series.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.35 net.
Bennett, Rev. W. H. Joshua and the Conquest of Palestine. (Temple Series of Bible Handbooks.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Campe's Robinson der Jüngere, abridged and edited by C. H. Ibershoff. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Chase, Wilfrid Earl. Poems. Printed by the Author, 302 State St., Madison, Wis. 50 cents postpaid.
Chateaubriand's Les Aventures du Dernier Abencerage. Edited by Victor E. François. (Contes Choisis.) William R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Chiról, Valentine. The Middle Eastern Question, or Some Political Problems of Indian Defence. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$5 net.
Chisholm, George G., and Leete, C. H. Longmans' School Geography. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.50.
Clark, T. M. En Voyage. (Conversations in French and English.) New York: William R. Jenkins.
Day, Clive. The Policy and Administration of the Dutch in Java. The Macmillan Co. \$2 net.
Demosthenes on the Crown. Edited by William Watson Goodwin. The Macmillan Co. \$1.10.

Dumas's Les Trois Mousquetaires, with introduction by C. Fontaine. American Book Co.
Facsimile Reprints—Milton's Comus; Breton's Discovers of North Part of Virginia; and Harlot's Report of Virginia, each with introduction by Luther S. Livingston. Limited ed. Japan paper, \$7.50 net each; deckle-edge laid paper, \$2.50 net. Also, Journal of House of Representatives, Province of New York; and Nicholas Bayard's Journal, with introductory notes by Adelaide R. Hasse; the former \$4 net, the latter \$10 net for Japan paper and \$4 net for deckle-edge laid paper. Dodd, Mead & Co.
François, Victor E. Beginner's French. American Book Co.
Gardenhire, Samuel M. Lux Crucis. (Novel.) Harper & Bros. \$1.50.
Goethe's Das Märchen, edited by Charles A. Egbert. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Halsey, Frederick A., and Dale, Samuel S. The Metric Fallacy, and The Metric Failure in the Textile Industry. D. Van Nostrand Co. \$1.
Huntley, C. W. French Elements of English Composition. The Macmillan Co. 60 cents.
José Echegaray's El Gran Galeoto. (Drama.) Edited by Aurelio M. Espinosa. Boston: C. A. Koehler & Co. 75 cents.
Larra's Partir à Tempo, with notes by Edwin B. Nichols. American Book Co.
Litchfield, Grace Denio. Vita; A Drama. Boston: Richard G. Badger. \$1.25.
Luckey, G. W. A. The Professional Training of Secondary Teachers in the United States. New York: Macaulay's Essay on Milton. Edited by Edward Leeds Gulick. (Gateway Series.) American Book Co.
Molière's Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme, with introduction and notes by P. A. Roi and William B. Guiteau. American Book Co.
Paul, Herbert. A History of Modern England. Five Vols. Vols. I. and II. The Macmillan Co. \$2.50 net each.
Painter, P. V. N. Poets of the South. American Book Co.
Rider, John Hall. Electric Traction. (The Specialists' Series.) London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: The Macmillan Co. \$3.
Ritchie, The Rev. Arthur. Sermons from St. Ignatius Pulpit. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co. \$1 net.
Sayce, A. H. Joseph and the Land of Egypt. (Temple Series of Bible Handbooks.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Scheffel's Der Trompeter von Säckingen, with introduction by Valentin Buchner. American Book Co.
Shakspeare's Comedies, Shakspeare's Tragedies, and Shakspeare's Histories, Poems, and Sonnets. Edited by W. J. Craig. (Oxford miniature edition.) 3 vols. London: Oxford University Press; New York: Henry Frowde. Cloth, \$1.10 each.
Swenson, Bernard Victor. Testing of Electro-Magnetic Machinery and Other Apparatus. Vol. I. The Macmillan Co. \$3.
Swithinbank, Harold, and Newman, George. Bacteriology of Milk. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$8 net.
Tarr, Ralph S. New Physical Geography. The Macmillan Co. \$1.
The Birth of Hercules (drama), published from the manuscript in the British Museum, with an introduction by Malcolm William Wallace. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.
The Cambridge Modern History. Vol. II., The Reformation. The Macmillan Co. \$4 net.
The Divine Vision, and Other Poems. By A. E. The Macmillan Co.
The Hundred Best Pictures. Arranged and edited by C. Hubert Letts. American ed. Charles Letts & Co.
Tobit, and the Babylonian Apocryphal Writings. Edited by A. H. Sayce. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 60 cents net.
Tompkins, William Henry. Robert of Kincald. (Verse.) Boston: Richard G. Badger. \$1.25.
Turgénieff's Novels and Stories. V., On the Eve. VI., Fathers and Children. Translated by Isabel F. Hapgood. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2 net each.
Van Dyne, Frederick. Citizenship of the United States. Rochester, N. Y.: The Lawyers' Co-operative Publishing Co.
Weyse, Arthur Wisswald. A Synoptic Text-Book of Zoology. The Macmillan Co. \$4.
Woodward, G. R. Poemata. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.20 net.
Wright, John. The Home Mechanic. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.50 net.

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